



**GAZETTEER OF INDIA
UTTAR PRADESH**

DISTRICT GHAZIPUR

सत्यमेव जयते

Price Rs. 54.00

UTTAR PRADESH DISTRICT GAZETTEERS



GHAZIPUR

DANGLI PRASAD VARUN

सत्यमेव जयते I.A.S.
State Editor

Published by the Government of Uttar Pradesh
(Department of District Gazetteers, U. P., Lucknow)

and

Printed by Superintendent, Printing & Stationery, U. P.
at the Ashok Mudran Grih, 42, Tashkent Marg, Allahabad—U.P.

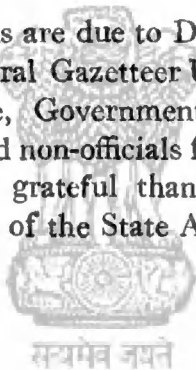
1982

PREFACE

Early accounts of the area covered by the Ghazipur district, were E.T. Atkinson's *Statistical, Descriptive and Historical Account of the North-Western Provinces of India, Vol. XIII, part II—Ghazipur*, (Allahabad, 1884), W. Oldham's *Historical and Statistical Memoir of the Ghazipur District*, (Allahabad, 1870), various Settlement reports of the region and H.R. Nevill's *Ghazipur ; A Gazetteer* (Allahabad, 1909) and its supplements.

This is the thirty-fourth in the series of revised District Gazetteers of the State of Uttar Pradesh, which are being published under a scheme jointly sponsored and financed by the Union and State Governments. A bibliography of published works, used in the preparation of this Gazetteer, appears at its end.

My grateful thanks are due to Dr P.N. Chopra, Editor, Indian Gazetteers, Central Gazetteer Unit, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Government of India, New Delhi, and all those officials and non-officials for their help in bringing out this gazetteer. My grateful thanks are also due to the chairman and members of the State Advisory Board.



D. P. VARUN
I. A. S.

Lucknow :
March 31, 1977

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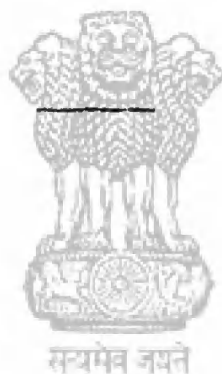
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CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>
<i>Preface</i>	v
<i>Advisory Board</i>	vi
<i>Map of the District</i>	
<i>Chapter</i>	
I General	1
II History	14
III People	45
IV Agriculture and Irrigation	71
V Industries	88
VI Banking, Trade and Commerce	99
VII Communications	117
VIII Miscellaneous Occupations	126
IX Economic Trends	133
X General Administration	147
XI Revenue Administration	151
XII Law and Order and Justice	166
XIII Other Departments	178
XIV Local Self-government	183
XV Education and Culture	201
XVI Medical and Public Health Services	221
XVII Other Social Services	239
XVIII Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations	247
XIX Places of Interest	255
<i>Appendix</i>	
Conversion Factors	266
Glossary	267
Bibliography	271
Index	277

*Description of Illustrations**Facing Page*

1. Ashok Pillar, Saidpur Bhitri	16
2. Tomb of Pahar Khan, a well-known <i>faujdar</i> of Ghazipur	29
3. Court of Nal-Damyanti, Dildarnagar	258
4. Lord Cornwallis memorial, Ghazipur	260
5. Inscription in the central part of Lord Cornwallis memorial, Ghazipur	260
6. Opium Factory, Ghazipur	261
7. Samadhi of Pavhari Baba, a great saint	At the end
8. Fort of Raja Gadh, Ghazipur	At the end



CHAPTER I

GENERAL

Origin of Name of District

The district has derived its name from its headquarters town of Ghazipur. It was during the reign of Harsha that Hiuen Tsang, the celebrated Chinese pilgrim, visited this tract which he states was then known as Chen Chu, a Chinese term meaning the "Kingdom of the Lord of Battles" which in Sanskrit can be variously rendered as Yudhapatipura, Yudharanapura and Garjapatipura, the last being the term adopted by Cunningham who opined that the place intended then as the capital became the modern Ghazipur. According to a Hindu legend, the original name of the place was Gadhipura, so called after a Raja Gadhi, Gaj or Gath, this probably being the reason why local people sometimes use the name Gajipur. About the foundation of Ghazipur it is said that Raja Mandhata, who was a descendant of Prithvi Raj of Delhi, once set out on a pilgrimage to the celebrated shrine of Jagannath but achieved his object by bathing in a tank at Kathot (near Ghanspur in pargana Muhammadabad some 14.4 km. from Ghaziabad) under the direction of five Brahmanas. He then settled there and built a fort. It is also said that his nephew and heir seized a Muslim girl, whose widowed mother appealed to the sultan with the result that a band of forty *ghazis* under one Saiyid Masaud, undertook the sovereign's commission to redress the wrong, reached Kathot, captured the fort and slew the raja. His nephew then made a stand against them but was defeated in two battles, one fought on the banks of the Besu and the other on the site of this place, where Masaud is supposed traditionally to have founded a city in 1330 commemorating his newly acquired title of Malik-us-Sadat Ghazi.

Location, Boundaries, Area and Population

Location and Boundaries—The district of Ghazipur forms the eastern part of the Varanasi Division. It lies to the east and north of the Jaunpur and Varanasi districts respectively between the parallels of $25^{\circ} 19'$ and $25^{\circ} 54'$ north latitude and $83^{\circ} 4'$ and $83^{\circ} 58'$ east longitude. It is bounded on the north-west by Azamgarh, on the north-east by Ballia and on the south-east by the Shahabad district of Bihar, from which it is separated by the Karamnasa river. The

boundaries are generally conventional though at places they are marked by natural features, such as the Sarju (Tons), Karamnasa and other small streams. The extreme length of the district from east to west is about 89 km. and the maximum breadth from north to south about 59 km.

Area—According to the central statistical organisation the district had an area of 3,381 sq. km. on July 1, 1971, occupying the 50th position in the State.

Population—According to the census of 1971, the district occupies the 30th position in the State in respect of population which was 15,31,654 (females 7,57,038). The rural areas were inhabited by 14,62,654 persons (females 7,24,792) and the urban by 69,000 (females 32,246).

HISTORY OF DISTRICT AS ADMINISTRATIVE UNIT

Ghazipur was constituted a separate district in 1818. Originally the district was very big, including not only modern Ballia but also Narwan in Varanasi, Chaunsa in Shahabad and the parganas of Sagri, Ghosi, Mau and Muhammadabad in district Azamgarh. Several changes were made in that year, Narwan being restored to Varanasi in exchange for Khanpur and Chaunsa transferred to Shahabad which gave up the *tappa* of Doaba now in Ballia. The above mentioned parganas of Azamgarh were given to that district on September 18, 1832. In November, 1879, the Ballia parganas were separated followed in April, 1883, by the transfer of *tappa* Dhaka—a tract of 76 villages—from Zahurabad. In November, 1884, twelve villages lying on the right bank of the Sarju were given back to the district of Ghazipur and added to pargana Dehma. In March, 1892, pargana Garha was added to Ballia and 4 months later the village of Narayanpur and 3 others of pargana Muhammadabad were made over to it. In 1925, pargana Mahaich was transferred to Varanasi. In 1951, village Kondhia of the Muhammadabad tahsil was transferred to the Rasra tahsil of the Ballia district. In 1954, a new tahsil, that of Zamania, was formed by taking 382 villages covering an area of about 768 sq. km. from the Ghazipur tahsil.

Subdivisions, Tahsils and Thanas

The district has four subdivisions—Saidpur, Ghazipur, Muhammadabad and Zamania, each also forming a tahsil of the same name.

Tahsil Saidpur constitutes the western subdivision of the district. It is bounded on the north and north-west by district Azamgarh, on the

east by tahsil Ghazipur and on the west by tahsil Kirakat of Jaunpur. Its southern boundary is formed by the Ganga which separates it from district Varanasi. According to the census of 1971 it has 1,225 villages and the town of Saidpur and covers an area of 1,110.3 sq. km. with a population of 4,96,474 (females 2,48,509). There are 5 development blocks in the tahsil.

Tahsil and subdivision Ghazipur constitutes the central portion of the district. It is bounded on the north by the Azamgarh district, on the east by the Muhammadabad and Zamania tahsils, on the west by the Saidpur tahsil, its southern boundary being formed by the Ganga which separates it from district Varanasi. According to the census of 1971 it has an area of 672.9 sq. km. and a population of 3,48,657 (females 1,70,578) and contains 627 villages and the town of Ghazipur. In this tahsil there are 4 development blocks.

Tahsil Muhammadabad forms the north-eastern subdivision of the district and extends eastward from the borders of Ghazipur to the boundary of Ballia, which skirts it on the north and east and to the south lies tahsil Zamania and the Shahabad district of Bihar, the dividing line in the latter case being the river Ganga. On its west lies the Ghazipur tahsil. According to the census of 1971 it has an area of 819.2 sq. km. with a population of 3,70,676 (females 1,81,550) and contains 1,134 villages and the town of Muhammadabad. There are 4 development blocks in the tahsil.

Tahsil Zamania forms the south-western subdivision of the district and comprises all the land south of the Ganga as well as a small alluvial strip (to the north of that river) marching with tahsil Muhammadabad. It is bounded on the west by tahsil Ghazipur and district Varanasi and on the north by tahsil Muhammadabad. The river Karamnasa makes the southern and eastern boundary, separating it from the Shahabad district of Bihar. According to the census of 1971 it has an area of 768.7 sq. km. with a population of 3,15,847 (females 1,56,401) spread over 382 villages. There are 3 development blocks in the tahsil.

Thanas—For the purpose of police administration there are 17 thanas (police-stations) in the district which are Kotwali, Nandganj, Saidpur, Shadiabad, Sadat, Burkura, Muhammadabad, Karimuddinpur, Gonahra, Qasimabad, Mardah, Birno, Zamania, Dildarnagar, Gahmar, Bhanwarkol and Karanda.

TOPOGRAPHY

The general slope of the district is from north-west to south-east, this being the direction generally taken by the subsidiary drainage lines though the Ganga itself leaves the district in a higher latitude than at its

point of entry, while the north-easterly course of the Karamnasa points to the existence of a reversed slope on the south bank of the Ganga. The soils and the general topography of the district depend directly on the drainage. The district can be divided into three physical divisions—the northern uplands, the central lowlands and the southern uplands.

The northern uplands, which comprise all the country north of the Ganga, with the exception of parts of Saidpur and Ghazipur and the greater portion of Muhammadabad, mostly resemble the ordinary uplands of the Gangetic plain. The higher levels are sandy and on the slopes inland from the banks of the streams the soil becomes good fertile loam (usually of somewhat light character) but in the depressions this merges into a stiff clay which turns into *usar* wherever saturation occurs and the hard grey *dhankar* being fitted (as its name implies) for the cultivation of rice. The light sandy soil is generally known as *balua*, the loam as *doras* (corresponding to *dumat* of other parts) and clay as *matiyar*. In most parts of the upland there is a large amount of *kankar* in the subsoil.

The alluvial lowlands, generally known as *terai*, comprise a small portion of the Saidpur and Ghazipur parganas, almost the whole of Karanda and the greater part of Muhammadabad from the Ganga to the road which goes from Ghazipur to Lathudih and Ballia. South of the Ganga the alluvial area includes half of the Zamania tahsil, the limit being marked roughly by a line from the town of Zamania to Nagsar and then to Gahmar. Here the soil varies from the sand found on the banks of the Ganga to the fine loam deposit left by the river and the characteristic *karail* (dark soil). There are two *karail* tracts, one in Muhammadabad, where it includes all the land from Korantadih and Ballia road on the south to the banks of the Mangai on the north, stretching westward to within 3 km. of Muhammadabad itself; and the other in the centre of Zamania, forming a three-cornered area with Nagsar, Sohwal and Karahia at the three angles.

The central portion of Zamania constitutes the southern uplands which have the ordinary loam and clay soils of the northern uplands. There is a stretch of fertile *karail* on the north of the Karamnasa river from the boundary of Varanasi on the west to the village of Dewal on the east.

RIVER SYSTEM AND WATER RESOURCES

The Ganga is the most important river of the district, the rivers, Gomati, Gangi, Besu, Mangai, Sarju and the Karamnasa being directly or indirectly its main affluents.

Ganga—This river first touches this district in the extreme south-west of pargana Saidpur and forms the boundary between Ghazipur and

Varanasi for a long distance. After the first 3 km. it changes direction at Aunrihar, bending to the south-east and after some distance turns north-eastward. Near Nari Pachdeora in Saidpur it takes a sharp bend to the south-east flowing past Chochakpur and Paharapur. In the extreme south of Karanda it takes another great bend, turning northward to the town of Zamania and then north-westward as far as Mainpur and the confluence with the Gangi. From Mainpur the Ganga sweeps to the north-east but a few kilometres beyond the district headquarters it bends to the south-east through a wide expanse of alluvium. For many years it used to work its way through three distinct channels, enclosing large islands but the current has now shifted wholly to the right hand channel. Thus from Zamania to Bara the course of the river forms an immense arc encompassing the Zamania pargana, with the town of Ghazipur in the centre on the outer side. At Bara the bed narrows and the stream flows eastward as far as Chaunsa in Shahabad, where it turns to the north-east separating pargana Muhammadabad from Bihar. The total length from its first point of contact in this district to its exit at Rasulpur is about 102 km.

Gomati—The first tributary to join the Ganga in this district is the Gomati which flows along the southern boundary of the Saidpur tahsil, separating it from Varanasi. The Gomati is here a navigable stream subject at times to heavy floods which are intensified by the action of the Ganga in holding up the water at the junction. The land along the Gomati is broken by ravines some of which extend inland for a long distance, one of the chief being the Sarwa, a small watercourse that forms the boundary between this district and Jaunpur.

Gangi—The next tributary on the left bank is the Gangi, a stream which rises near Jaunpur and makes its way in a south-easterly direction through the clay lands along the borders of Jaunpur and Azamgarh. At its entry into this district at Soniapar near Nek Dih it is joined by a minor drainage channel called Pachhadi and then it flows for a few kilometres along the Azamgarh boundary, afterwards separating the parganas of Bahriabad and Saidpur. At Dahara it is fed by a small affluent which carries down the drainage from the country to the west and then it passes into pargana Saidpur where its course is marked by a succession of loops and bends, the general direction being east-south-east. It forms the boundary between the Karanda and Ghazipur parganas and joins the Ganga at Mainpur.

Besu—The Besu has its origin in the Deogaon tahsil (of district Azamgarh) and first touches the district at Gadaipur in the north-west corner of pargana Bahriabad. For several kilometres it separates that pargana from Azamgarh and from its junction with the Noni, a small

affluent, it turns to the south-east, traversing the Shadiabad pargana. A short distance above Shadiabad town the Besu is joined by the Udwanti, a well-defined stream, which rises in Azamgarh and after forming for a short distance the district boundary is joined by a minor watercourse called the Dona and then flows eastward through Bahriabad to Hurmuzpur (on its right bank). About 6 km. below Shadiabad it receives on the same bank a streamlet which carries off the surplus water from the Parna lake and other swamps in Saidpur. It then flows towards the east and joins the Ganga on its left bank.

Mangai—This is a big river which rises near Dostpur in the Sultanpur district and then flows through the north of Jaunpur and the south of Azamgarh, entering Ghazipur district in the north of pargana Shadiabad. Then it maintains a south-easterly course, though its channel is very tortuous, as far as Sheikhpur, where it is crossed by the road from Ghazipur to Gorakhpur. From that point it bends to the north-east for several kilometres but again turns south-eastward through the Muhammadabad pargana till it reaches Hata from where it again flows north-eastward along the edge of the uplands to Lathudih where it once more takes a south-easterly course into the Ballia district and finally joins the Sarju (or Tons) just before the junction of the latter with the Ganga. The total length of the river in this district is about 99 km. It drains a very large area but it receives no affluent of any importance. The Sota, which is a small stream, traverses the north-west corner of the Muhammadabad tahsil, rises near Kaghzipur and falls into the main stream on the left bank at Gathia. Like other rivers, the Mangai carries a large volume of water during the rains but in dry seasons it shrinks considerably.

Bhainsahi—This river rises in the Muhammadabad tahsil of Azamgarh and for a considerable distance forms the northern boundary of this district which it first touches near Jalalabad. After draining the north of Shadiabad and Pachotar and gradually increasing in size and depth, it passes into Zahurabad and falls into the Sarju just below the town of Bahadurganj. In the rains it attains a considerable size.

Sarju—The Sarju (often known as the Tons and also as the Chhoti Sarju to distinguish it from the greater river of this name) contains the combined water of the Tons and the Chhoti Sarju, the two streams uniting near Mau in Azamgarh and then passing into pargana Zahurabad near Bahadurganj. After receiving the Bhainsahi on its right bank, the Sarju flows along the northern boundary of pargana Zahurabad for a considerable distance, separating the district from Ballia into which it passes from pargana Dehma. Its only tributary besides the Bhainsahi is a small stream called the Godhni, which has its origin in a line of *jhils* of which Singhera Tal is the chief. After running through pargana Zahura-

bad for about 15 km. it falls into the Sarju near the village of Fateh Sarai. The Sarju is a considerable river flowing in a broad valley. During the rains it becomes deep and rapid. The floods often attain large dimensions but unlike those of the Ganga are injurious as they generally leave behind nothing but sand.

Lambuia—The Lambuia (named after the village of Lambui at its confluence with the Ganga), also called the Mahuji and is a small stream rising in the clay tract in the south of pargana Mahaich of district Varanasi. For a short distance it forms the boundary between this district and that of Varanasi.

Karamnasa—The Karamnasa, known as the ill-omened stream—its name meaning the destroyer of pious deeds—was avoided by the superstitious or the orthodox. Rising in the Kaimur hills, it passes through the districts of Mirzapur and Varanasi and, flowing towards the north-east, forms the boundary of the district which it separates from Bihar. It joins the Ganga near Bara at Chaunsa where Humayun was defeated by Sher Shah Suri. It drains a considerable area of the southern uplands and is fed by several small channels, of which the chief is the Eknaiya, which join it at Diwaittha.

Lakes—Though the rivers drain the district, there are certain tracts particularly in the north of the district especially in the tracts between the Mangai on the south and the Bhainsahi and Sarju on the north, in which there is hardly any natural drainage and where there are depressions from which the surface water finds no proper outlet. Shallow *jhils* and lagoons are to be found here which extend in an irregular line and follow the general slope of the ground. Where the depressions are so shallow that *jhils* or swamps cannot be formed, they are utilised for the growing of rice. The surface water, essential for the growth of rice, is held by means of low earthen dams. The most northerly of these lines is in Pachotar, where the long Singhera Tal with its many branches sends its overflow eastward to form the Godhni, assisted by another string of swamps at Sulemanpur, Mahudpur and other villages, extending north-eastward. A more important line is that which originates in the Malher or Nada Tal near Jalalabad and continues in a south-easterly direction to the Manadar or Majhan *jhil*, that at Kothia on the Shadiabad border and the large Udain and Sheda Tals near Bonga from where the line extends right across Pachotar into Muhammadabad at Kaghzipur, there forming the source of the Sota stream. The smaller *jhils* usually dry up during the cold weather. In the south-east of Zahurabad there is a large *jhil* near Barachaur. A similar line of swamps, known as the Parna *jhil*, extends through the north of Saidpur in the tract between the Besu and the Gangi. There is another

line of swamps in Khanpur and the east of Saidpur which discharges its overflow into the Ganga. In the extreme west of pargana Ghazipur there is an extensive depression called the Reonsa Tal near Nandganj as well as the *jhils* at Fatehullahpur. South of the Ganga the chief *jhils* are in the lowlands of Zamania, notably the big Barka Tal at Sunahria, between Lahura and Dharni, and the long lagoon to the west of Reotipur.

GEOLOGY

As the district lies in the alluvial plain of the Ganga, its mineral products are limited. The most valuable and most common is *kankar* (limestone conglomerate) which occurs in extensive strata throughout the upland area, at varying depths below the surface. Where possible it is quarried for ballast, road metal and for lime-burning. Clay suitable for making bricks is obtained everywhere. Saline earth is to be found in all parts of the district especially in the rice tract between the Mangai and the Bhainsahi, where the efflorescence known as *reh* is also found.

Seismology—The earthquakes in the area are attributed to the proximity of the Himalayan Boundary fault zone in the north, the Patha fault in the east and the Vindhayan fault in the south. Ghazipur is situated in an area where no earthquake of any significance has occurred but it has experienced fringe effects of the moderate to great earthquakes originating in the Great Himalayan Boundary fault zone and the Narmada-Sone fault region. Of the important shocks pertaining to this area are the Rewa earthquake of June 2, 1927, and the Bihar-Nepal earthquake of January 15, 1934. The maximum intensity experienced during the latter was VI of the Modified Mercalli Intensity Scale (I—not felt to XII—total damage) of 1931. In the seismic zoning map of India the area has been placed in zone III which corresponds to a maximum intensity of VII MM.

FLORA

The forest area in the district is very small. All the forests in the district are under the control of the *gaon sabhas*. The total area of forests in the district was about 8,553 hectares in 1970-71. The trees which are found in these forests are of the ordinary varieties common to the whole Gangetic plain and are *safed siris* (*Albizia procera*), neem (*Azadirachta indica*), *imli* (*Tamarindus indica*) *bargad* or *banyan* (*Ficus bengalensis*), *pipal* (*Ficus religiosa*), *gular* (*Ficus glomerata*), *pakar* (*Ficus infectogria*), *semal* (*Salmalia malabarica*), *jamun* (*Syzygium cumini*) and *shisham* (*Dalbergia sissoo*).

FAUNA

As the district lacks dense and extensive forests the number of wild animals and the variety of species is small. The animals found in

the district are the nilgai (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*), wild pig (*Sus cristatus*), jackal (*Canis aureus*), fox (*Vulpes bengalensis*), hare (*Lepus nigrocollic ruficaudatus*), black buck (*Antelope cervicapra*) and wolf (*Canis lupus*).

Birds—The birds of the district are the same as those of the adjoining districts and are the peacock (*Pavo cristatus*) the national bird of India, grey quail (*Coturnix coturnix*), Indian parakeet (*Psittacula eupatria*), roseringed parakeet (*Psittacula krameri*), crow (*Corvus splendens*), mynah (*Acridotheres tristis*), swallow (*Hirundo rustica*), green pigeon (*Treron phoenicoptera*) and cattle egret (*Bubulcus ibis*).

Reptiles—Different varieties of snakes and other reptiles are found everywhere in the district especially in the rural areas particularly the cobra (*Naja naja*), karait (*Bungarus caeruleus*), rat snake (*Ptyas mucosus*), gecko (*Hemidactylus brooki*), common house lizard (*Hemidactylus flaviviridi*), goh (*Agma tuberculata*), garden lizard or girgit (*Colotes versicolor*), gharial (*Gavialis*) and crocodile (*Crocodylus*).

Fish—Fish are found in the rivers, lakes and ponds of the district, the species commonly found being rohu (*Labeo rohita*), karounch (*Labeo calbasu*), khursa (*Labeo gonius*), bhakur (*Catla catla*), parhan (*Wallagonta attu*), patra (*Notopeternus notopeternus*), mol (*Notopeternus chitala*) and singhi (*Heteropneustes fossilis*).

Game Laws

The rules applicable to game in the district were governed by the Wild Birds and Animal Protection (U. P. Amendment) Act, 1934, which has been replaced by the Wild Life (Protection) Act, 1972, which made game laws more stringent in order to conserve wild life and prevent the extinction of certain species. The wolf, crocodile, gharial and peafowl have been declared protected species and certain restrictions have been placed on the shooting of wild pig, nilgai and some other species. The punishment for infringement of the law has been made more deterrent.

CLIMATE

The district has an extreme type of climate with hot summers and cold winters. The year may be divided into four seasons. The cold season—from about the middle of November to February—is followed by the summer season—from March to about the middle of June. The period from mid-June to the end of September constitutes the south-west monsoon season. The succeeding period till the middle of November is the post-monsoon season.

Rainfall—Records of rainfall in the district are available for a sufficiently long period for only four stations. The details of the

rainfall at these stations and the data for the district as a whole are given in the table at the end of the chapter.

The south-west monsoon usually arrives in the district by about the middle of June and withdraws by the end of September. The average annual rainfall of the district is 1,051.8 mm., varying from about 97 cm. in the southern or south-eastern parts of the district to about 110 cm. in the north or north-west. About 88 per cent of the annual normal rainfall in the district is received in the south-west monsoon season, August being the rainiest month, which alone accounts for as much as 30 per cent. The variation in the rainfall from year to year is fairly considerable. In the fifty-year period from 1901 to 1950, the heaviest annual rainfall which was 145 per cent of the normal was recorded in 1936. The lowest annual rainfall amounting to 66 per cent of the normal occurred in 1932. In this fifty-year period, the annual rainfall in the district was less than 80 per cent of the normal in 7 years, 3 of them being consecutive. Considering the rainfall at individual stations, 2 consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred twice at Saidpur Bhitri and Zamania and once at Ghazipur. Three consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred once at Muhammadabad. The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 428.7 mm. at Saidpur Bhitri on August 29, 1940.

A statement regarding the frequency of the annual rainfall in the district is given below for the period 1901-50 :

Range in mm.	No. of years
601-700	1
701-800	5
801-900	6
901-1000	9
1001-1100	9
1101-1200	7
1201-1300	5
1301-1400	6
1401-1500	1
1501-1600	1

The above statement shows that the annual rainfall in the district was between 800 mm. and 1,200 mm. in 31 years out of 50.

On an average there are 49 rainy days (days with rainfall of 2.5 mm. or more) in a year in the district. This number varies from 47 at Zamania to 50 or 51 in the rest of the district.

Temperature—There is no meteorological observatory in the district. The description which follows is based on the records of the observatories in the neighbouring districts where similar climatic conditons prevail. May is usually the hottest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at about 41°C and the mean daily minimum at about 26°C . The summer is intensely hot and on individual days the maximum temperature during May or early June occasionally exceeds 46°C . With the advent of the monsoon by about the middle of June there is an appreciable drop in the day temperature though the nights continue to be warm. Even in July and August, when the south-west monsoon is well established, day temperatures on some days during breaks in the rains may reach over 40°C . The day temperatures do not decrease even after the withdrawal of the monsoon early in October but the nights become cooler. After October both the day and night temperatures decrease rapidly. January is generally the coldest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at about 23°C and the mean daily minimum at about 9°C . In the cold season, in association with passing western disturbances, the district experiences cold waves when the minimum temperature may go down to a degree or 2 degrees above freezing point.

Humidity—During July and September, the relative humidity is high, being over 70 per cent. During the post-monsoon and winter seasons, the humidity is high in the morning. By summer, the relative humidities become very low, particularly in the afternoons from March to May when they are less than 25 per cent.

Cloudiness—During July or August the skies are heavily clouded or overcast. Thereafter cloudiness decreases rapidly and skies generally become clear or lightly clouded in the cold season and in summer. But in the cold season, in association with passing disturbances, cloudy conditions occur for brief spells of a day or two.

Winds—During the monsoon months from June to September, winds are generally easterly to north-easterly though occasionally they are westerly to south-westerly. In association with monsoon depressions from the Bay of Bengal, strong winds may be experienced. During the post-monsoon months from October to December, winds are south-westerly to westerly in the morning, veering to north-west in the afternoon. Winds gain strength during the winter and pre-monsoon months till April when they are mostly south-westerly to westerly in the mornings, veering to north-west in the afternoon. In May, easterlies to north-easterlies make their appearance occasionally before becoming predominant in the later months.

Special Weather Phenomena—Some of the monsoon depressions, particularly in the early part of the season which originate at the head of the Bay of Bengal and move in a westerly to a north-westerly direction

across the country, affect the weather over the district causing heavy rain. Thunderstorms, which occur mostly during the monsoon season, usually begin in July and August. Dust-storms or thunderstorms occur in the summer months. Some thunderstorms occur in the cold season also and occasional fogs occur in December and January.



TABLE
Normals and extremes of Rainfall

Station	No. of Years of date	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Annual	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal & year	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal & year	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours*	Amount Date (mm.)
Ghazipur	50a	17.0	22.3	8.4	6.3	12.5	121.4	303.3	315.7	205.5	44.2	7.9	6.1	1070.6	155	60	346.7	Aug. 29, 1940
	b	1.5	1.8	1.0	0.5	1.1	6.0	13.1	13.9	0.8	2.3	0.5	0.4	50.9 (1922)				
Saidpur Bhitri	50a	17.3	21.8	10.2	5.6	12.5	122.2	300.5	339.9	206.5	51.1	6.9	6.1	1100.6	147	54	428.7	Aug. 29 1940
	b	1.5	1.8	0.9	0.5	0.8	5.5	12.8	14.7	8.8	2.3	0.6	0.5	50.1 (1922)				
Zamania	50a	13.2	20.1	5.6	3.8	9.1	121.4	265.9	287.0	177.5	47.7	7.4	6.3	965.0	157	65	215.9	Aug. 1, 1922
	b	1.1	1.6	0.8	0.4	0.7	5.4	12.2	12.8	8.5	2.1	0.5	0.4	46.5 (1936)				
Muhammadabad	50a	16.5	20.6	0.8	4.8	15.7	113.5	299.0	313.7	212.3	51.8	8.4	5.8	1070.2	144	65	285.2	Sept. 12, 1953
	b	1.3	1.7	0.8	0.5	1.1	5.5	13.2	13.8	9.0	2.3	0.5	0.5	50.4 (1944)				
Ghazipur (District)	50a	16.0	21.2	8.1	5.1	12.5	119.6	292.2	314.1	200.5	48.7	7.7	6.1	1051.8	145	66		
	b	1.3	1.7	0.9	0.5	0.9	5.6	12.8	13.8	8.6	2.3	0.5	0.5	49.4 (1936)				

(a) Normal rainfall in mm.

(b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more)

* Based on all available data upto 1965

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

ANCIENT PERIOD

The region covered by the present district of Ghazipur once formed part of the ancient kingdom of Kashi, a famous centre of Aryan civilisation.¹ The ancient history of Ghazipur can therefore be pieced out from that of Kashi. Apart from the numerous legends connected with this region, valuable evidence (such as works and pieces of sculpture, images, coins, large bricks, etc.) has been found here and the remains of temples, *stupas* and monasteries with many brick-strewn mounds, are spread all over the district. These indicate that the tract enjoyed an advanced and settled social life from very early times. A cursory excavation made in 1879 (by Carlleyle) near Saidpur exposed successive strata of debris going back to the remotest age, for at the bottom, almost on a level with the river, were discovered several stones, celts and fish bones, evidently the relics of the earliest stage of civilisation.²

Archaeological Finds of Saidpur-Aunrihar

One of the oldest and most important finds in the district is the collection of mounds stretching from Saidpur to Aunrihar and from there along the Jaunpur road. Aunrihar, a small village in tahsil Saidpur, about 41 km. west of Ghazipur, is built on a large *khera*, believed to be the ruined site of an ancient city. The whole surface of the ground is covered with fragments of bricks and stones and every few yards masonry walls occur. The remains to the west of Saidpur go back at least to the earliest days of Buddhism. Oldham³ identifies these remains as the ruins of a monastery founded by Asoka.

In the hamlet of Budhupur or Zahurganj, which stands in the angle between the main road to Varanasi and that leading into the town of Saidpur, is situated a large mound close to the Ganga. In another mound immediately north of the road Carlleyle discovered remains of the stone age. Above these were the ruins of ancient temples and houses and a stone was found bearing the word "Krelulendrapura" in the Pali script which was probably the old name of the place, a fact supported by the

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1. Tripathi, R.S. : *History of Ancient India*, p. 41; Macdonell, A.A. and Keith, A.B. : *Vedic Index of Names and Subjects*, Vol. I, p. 153
 2. Nevill, H. R. : *Ghazipur : A Gazetteer*, (Allahabad, 1909), p. 151
 3. Oldham, W. : *Historical and Statistical Memoir of the Ghazipur district*, (Allahabad, 1870), Part I, p. 37

assertion of some inhabitants that the place was formerly called Krelendrapur. Old punch-marked coins of the Buddhist period and various other articles were also unearthed.¹ In the village of Ramatawakku, which is situated west of Zahurganj, there is another large mound thickly covered with broken bricks and fragments of stone and further west again, in Aunrihar, the whole surface of the ground is strewn with similar fragments and large carved stones. Of these, fine pieces of sculpture were utilised as common building-stones and at every few yards traces of masonry walls appear.² These continue in a north-easterly direction towards the enormous mound of Maswan Dih, which is about 1.6 km. north of Zahurganj and nearly 3.2 km. from Saidpur. Here, there lies a great terrace, now covered with jungle, about 457 metres in length from east to west, the breadth ranging from 205 to 183 metres. To the north is a tank called the Kalwari Pokhra with high embankments on either side. The mound, which rises to a height varying from 6 to 15 m. above the surrounding country, obviously represents the site of a large city—perhaps a part of the supposed Krelulendrapura. The terrace has not been fully explored but it would seem that extensive buildings lie buried there and the coins that have been found point to early Buddhist occupations.³

Visit of Hiuen Tsang

There can then be no doubt that the spot which the present town of Ghazipur occupies is a very old site. The Chinese pilgrim, Hiuen Tsang (who stayed in India from 630 to 644 A.D.) visited and described this place⁴ and states in his account that this area was then known as Chen Chu, meaning "the kingdom of the lord of battles", which has been variously rendered as Yudhapatipura, Yudharanpura and Garjapatipura. Cunningham regards the last rendering as the Sanskrit equivalent of the name Chen Chu and believes that the site of the present town of Ghazipur is located at this ancient place.⁵

Kamdhenu (wish-fulfilling cow)

Another legend states about the Zamania tahsil that Jamadagni Rishi and his wife lived in a hut on the banks of the Ganga close to the present town of Zamania which received its name of Jamadagniya from this association and which is the correct form of the present name.⁶

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1. Nevill, H.R. : *Ghazipur : A Gazetteer*, p. 151
 2. Fuhrer, A : *The Monumental Antiquities and Inscriptions in the N.W. Provinces and Oudh*, p. 227
 3. Nevill, H. R. : *Ghazipur : A Gazetteer*, p. 452
 4. S. Beal : *Buddhist Records of the Western World*, Vol. II, pp. 61-66
 5. Cunningham : *Ancient Geography of India*, pp. 438-440 ; *J.A.S.B.*, 1900, p. 86 ; *J. R. A. S.*, 1907, pp. 355, 525
 6. Cunningham : *Archaeological Reports*, Vol. III, p. 62

According to the *Mahabharata*, when the Haihaya king, Kartavirya, came to his hermitage with his army, Jamadagni treated him with great hospitality through the help of his celebrated and divine Kamdhenu (wish-fulfilling cow). The king was surprised but instead of being grateful, he carried Kamdhenu off by force. Kartavirya was afterwards overcome by Parsurama, Jamadagni's son and Kamdhenu was recovered.¹ Kartavirya offered a sacrifice in atonement of his sin.

Archaeological Finds of Bhitri

The several ancient ruins of the village of Bhitri go to show that this area was alternately in the hands of Buddhist and Brahmanical monarchs during the Gupta period, who embellished it according to their distinctive religious views. Among them several old works of sculpture found here, a nude statue of Buddha in excellent preservation² and another noticeable object, the famous *lat* (a stone column) with an inscription of Skandagupta on it, are noteworthy. The latter consists of a single block of reddish sandstone, 9 m. in height, standing on a rough stone, 24 m below the present level of the soil. The inscription itself consists of 19 lines of well-shaped characters of the Gupta period. It chiefly refers to the reign of Skandagupta and records the erection of a sacred image of Vishnu and the allotment to the image of the village in which the column stands. Several hoards of Gupta gold, silver and copper coins have been unearthed here.³

Early History

It appears that in the period to which the *Atharva Veda* belongs, Kashi, the holy city of the Hindus, was yet to come under the influence of the Aryan sacrificial religion which could make only a slow progress in this region owing to the religious opposition of the inhabitants. Some of its rulers are also known to have taken immense interest in the philosophical speculations of the Upanishadic Age.⁴

The early political history of this region is complex, the main sources of information being the *Puranas* supplemented by the epics (particularly the *Mahabharata*), the early Jain and Buddhist texts and classical Sanskrit literature. The earliest known dynasty which ruled over the region covering the present district, was founded by Pururavas Aila,⁵ a grandson

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1. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A. D. : *The History and Culture of the Indian People*, Vol. I, p. 284
 2. Fuhrer, A : *The Monumental Antiquities and Inscriptions in the N.W. Provinces and Oudh*, p. 228
 3. Ibid., p. 230
 4. *Manusmriti* : Ch. I ; Altekar, A.S. : *History of Benares*, p. 7
 5. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. : *The History and Culture of the Indian People*, Vol. I, p. 277

of Manu. The seventh king in the line was Kasha or Kashya (son of Sohotra and grandson of Kshatravridha) after whom the city, as also the kingdom, came to be named Kashi.¹

Pre-Mahabharata Period

The rise of the Barhadratha dynasty in Magadha, prior to the Mahabharata war, politically eclipsed the power of the Kashi kingdom. The Barhadratha king, Jarasandha (a contemporary of Krishna, the Kauravas and the Pandavas), succeeded in establishing his suzerainty over the whole of the Gangetic plain as far as Mathura which was then under the rule of his son-in-law, Kamsa.² Jarasandha does not seem to have annexed the territories of this region (of Ghazipur) but only to have made its kings acknowledge his suzerainty.³ The daughter of the Kashiraja (king of Kashi) was married to the Kaurava prince, Vichitravirya, who was a step-brother of Bhishma and the grandfather of the Pandavas.⁴ Even at the time of the Mahabharata war, Kashi had its own king, Kashiraja Viryavana, who had chosen to throw in his lot with the Pandavas against the Kauravas.⁵ It appears that this king of Kashi had broken away from the hegemony of Magadha (the ally of the Kauravas) on the eve of the Mahabharata war.

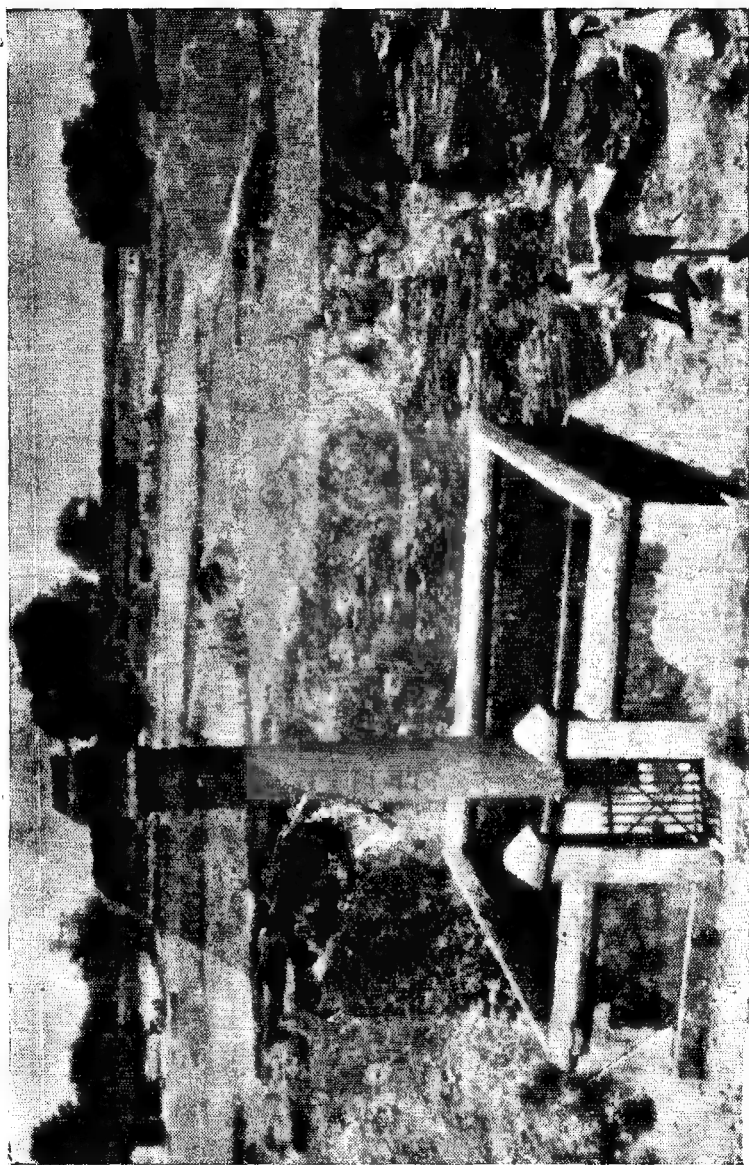
Post-Mahabharata Period

The ruling dynasty of this region which came into prominence in the post-Mahabharata period, was that of the Brahmadattas who find frequent mention in early Buddhist literature, especially in the *Jataka* stories.⁶

The Jains also testify to the greatness of the region in this period by representing Ashvasena, a king of Kashi, as the father of the Tirthankara, Parshva, who is said to have attained nirvana 250 years before Mahavira, i. e., in or about 777 B. C.⁷

During the two or three centuries preceding the birth of Mahavira and the Buddha, the whole of northern India was divided into sixteen principal states known in early Buddhist and Jain literatures as the Solasa-Mahajanapada. Of these the kingdoms of Magadha, Videha, Kashi, Kosala, Uttara Panchala and Kuru or Indraprastha included Bihar and

1. *Harivamsa* 29; *The Kashi-Khanda of the Skanda Purana* ascribes the origin of the name, Kashi, to the mythical Kasha (shining) lingam created here by Vishnu
2. Majumdar, R. C. and Pusalker, A. D. : *The History and Culture of the Indian People—The Vedic Age*, Vol. I, p. 296
3. Altekar, *op. cit.*, p. 10
4. *Mahabharata*, Adiparva. Ch. 102, vv. 50, 64-65
5. *Ibid.*, Bhishmaparva, Ch. 25 V. 5; *Gita*, Ch. I, V. 17
6. Altekar, *op. cit.*, p. 12, *Jataka*, Nos. 252, 425, 530 (Cowell's edition)
7. Raychaudhuri, H. C. : *Political History of Ancient India* (sixth edition), p. 9



Ashok Pillar, Saidpur Bhitri

the greater part of what is at present Uttar Pradesh.¹ The kingdom of Kashi was predominant in this period and covered the present district of Ghazipur.

Kingdoms of Kashi and Kosala

During the 8th and 7th centuries B. C., the most formidable rivals of the kings of Kashi were the rulers of the neighbouring kingdom of Kosala, these two kingdoms being often paired in early literature as Kashi-Kosala.² The wars referred to in the *Jatakas* as taking place between them are generally regarded to be historical events.³ One *Jataka* (No. 336) states that a king of Kashi conquered Kosala and captured its capital, Shravasti, annexing the whole kingdom and appointing his own officers to administer it. But three other *Jatakas* refer to the conquest of Kashi by three different rulers (Vanka, Dubhasena and Kamsa) of Kosala. Early in the sixth century B. C., the kingdom of Kashi completely collapsed in its struggle with Kosala and became one of its provinces and then for a time Kashi was tossed about between Kosala and Magadha.

When king Mahakosala (of Kosala) gave his daughter in marriage to king Bimbisara of Magadha (probably about the third quarter of the sixth century B. C.) he conferred upon her as pin-money the revenues of Kashi amounting to a hundred thousand in the money of those days.⁴ According to Buddhist tradition, after reigning for about fifty years Bimbisara was murdered by his son, Ajatashatru, and soon after Bimbisara's Kosala wife died of grief and perhaps also as a result of persecution. Mahakosala's son and successor, Prasenjit, therefore, declared war against Ajatashatru for the resumption of Kashi. The Magadha king, however, not only gave Ajatashatru his liberty but also his own daughter, Vajira, in marriage and even returned the township of Kashi to him for her pin-money.⁵

Kingdom of Magadha

As the power of the Kosalas was on the decline, the Kashi region seems to have continued to form part of the kingdom of Magadha even after the death of Vajira and in course of time not only the city but the entire territory of Kashi was absorbed into that kingdom.⁶ One of the

1. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. (Ed.): *The History and Culture of the Indian People*,—*The Age of Imperial Unity*, Vol. II, p. 1
2. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. (Ed.): *The History and Culture of the Indian People*,—*The Vedic Age*, Vol. I, p. 322
3. *Uttar Pradesh District Gazetteers, Varanasi*, p. 30
4. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. (Ed.): *The Age of Imperial Unity*, Vol. II, p. 19
5. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. (Ed.): *The History and Culture of the Indian People*,—*The Age of Imperial Unity*, Vol. II, pp. 22-23; Altekar, *op. cit.* pp. 16-17, *Jataka* (No. 492 Introduction) (Cowell's edition)
6. Altekar, *op. cit.*, p. 17

reasons for this keen contest for Kashi by the kings of Magadha may well have been the fact that they themselves were of Naga (Haryanka) origin. Under Ajatashatru, a Naga principality was re-established in Kashi and Kashi became politically important once again. When the last king of the line of Bimbisara proved incompetent, the high officials of Magadha invited Shishunaga, the governor of Kashi, to replace him. He amalgamated Kashi and Magadha placing his son in charge of Kashi and brought the greater part of northern India under his sway.¹

Nandas, Mauryas, Shungas and Kanvas

The sphere of influence of the Nandas, who succeeded the Shishunagas, extended as far as Punjab, the Kashi region forming an integral part of their empire.² The Mauryas next held sway over it and it was in the time of Asoka, the third emperor of the line, that Kashi emerged into fresh prominence and received the special attention of imperial power.

The Brahmanical Shungas and Kanvas followed the Mauryas and evidently ruled over the Kashi region about which nothing particular is known during this period.

After the fall of the Kanvas (c. 27 B.C.) Kashi seems to have been occupied by the Vatsas of Kaushambi, as an inscription on the Asokan pillar at Sarnath refers to King Ashvaghosha, whose coins bear a close resemblance to the coinage of the Vatsa kings of Kaushambi of those days.³

Kushanas

About the beginning of the last quarter of the first century A.D. the Kushanas had established a fairly stable kingdom in the greater part of northern India. Towards the end of the second or the beginning of the third century A.D., Kushana rule seems to have come to an end in this region (Ghazipur) probably due to the revival of the long-suppressed Naga power as a branch of the Nagas, known as Bharashiva, with its centre in Kantipuri (modern Kantit in district Mirzapur) appears to have conquered this region about that time.⁴

Gupta Empire

For nearly two centuries (from about 325 to 535 A.D.) this region formed part of the Gupta empire. Chandra Gupta I (320-335 A.D.)

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1. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. (Ed.): *The History and Culture of the Indian People,—The Age of Imperial Unity*. Vol. II, pp. 29-30
 2. *Ibid.*, p. 32; Shastri, K.A.N. : *A Comprehensive History of India*, Vol. II p. 5
 3. *Ibid.*, Vol. II, pp. 107-108 ; Altekar, *op. cit.*, pp. 17-18
 4. Altekar, *op. cit.*, p. 18; Majumdar, R. C. and Pusalker, A.D. *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 169

extended his dominion over the Gangetic valley as far as Allahabad.¹ The kingdom was enlarged and consolidated by his successors, notably Samudra Gupta and this period was characterised by a strong Hindu reaction. Samudra Gupta, the great conqueror, seems to have revived the *ashvamedha* tradition (with the idea of world conquest inherent in it) of the Bharashiva Nagas and his son and successor, Chandra Gupta Vikramaditya (376—415 A.D.) married a Naga princess, Kubernaga.² On the death of Chandra Gupta II his son Kumara Gupta, (415—455 A.D.), born of his chief queen, Dhruvadevi, ascended the throne. Towards the very end of his reign the peace of the empire was disturbed by the invasion of an enemy whose identity is not definitely established.³ The aged emperor, Kumara Gupta, died before Skanda Gupta's return from his victorious campaign (A.D. 455-56). The Bhitri pillar inscription describes how Skanda Gupta reported his glorious victory over the enemies to his mother, who received him with tears.⁴ Bhitri owed its rise and the erection of the famous pillar and the temple of Vishnu to Skand Gupta in 466 A.D.⁵ Apart from the pillar the most valuable yield has been a seal giving the genealogy of nine generations of the Gupta kings.⁶ Bhitri must have been one of the royal residences and the influence of the Guptas on this area was undoubtedly great. To the same period may be assigned the pillar at Lathia (near Zamania) and that found at Pahladpur (in pargana Mahaich) some 9.6 km. west of Zamania. (The last named, bearing the inscription of one Sisupala, was taken to Varanasi and set up in front of the Sanskrit college). It was the opinion of Cunningham that the Bhitri ruins date from the Gupta period and that they are among the oldest Brahmanical remains known.⁷ The Chinese pilgrim, Fa-hien (c. 400—411 A.D.), had passed through this place on his way from Patna to Varanasi but he mentions no place in this (Ghazipur) area.⁸

About the beginning of the second quarter of the sixth century A.D., Yashodharman of Malwa overran the whole of northern India and the district seems to have come under his meteoric sovereignty,⁹ after which it passed under the rule of the Maukharis of Kannauj.¹⁰

1. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. : *The History and Culture of the Indian People, The Age of Imperial Unity*, Vol. II, p. 4
2. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. : *The History and Culture of the Indian People, —The Classical Age*, Vol. III, p. 23
3. *Ibid*, p. 24
4. Avasthi, A.B.L. : *Prachin Bharat Ka Etihās*, p. 252
5. Cunningham, *Archaeological Reports*, Vol. I, pp. 56—103; *Journal, Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. XXXIV, pp. 82—89
6. *J.A.S.B.*, (1883), pp. 84—85
7. Fuhrer, A. : *The Monumental Antiquities and Inscriptions in the N. W. Provinces and Oudh*, p. 228
8. Nevill, H.R. : *Ghazipur : A Gazetteer*, p. 153
9. Sircar, D.C. : *Select Inscriptions*, Vol. I, p. 393; *Corpus Indicarum*, Vol. III, No. 33 (*Mandsor Stone Pillar Inscription of 532—33 A.D.*), p. 146
10. Tripathi, R.S. : *History of Kanauj*, p. 55

Harsha

In the first half of the seventh century A.D. this region formed a part of the dominions of Harsha¹ but this place does not find any mention in the works of Harsha himself or in those of his court poet, Bana, nor is it referred to in the two official copperplate inscriptions of his reign.

The death of Harsha was followed by political chaos in northern India and in the seventh century A.D. Ghazipur might have been included in the territories of the later Guptas of Magadha, one of whom, Adityasenagupta (c. 672 A.D.)² or his successor, Devagupta, is identified with 'the lord of the entire north' who, according to a Chalukyan inscription, was defeated by the Chalukya emperor, Vinayaditya.³ About the beginning of the eighth century A.D., King Yashovarman of Kannauj (c. 690-740 A.D.) rose to prominence and defeated and killed a king of Gauda (Bengal). Ghazipur must obviously have been conquered by Yashovarman's armies and annexed to his empire. He was signally defeated by Lalitaditya of Kashmir who succeeded in annexing a large portion of Uttar Pradesh to his kingdom, though there is no evidence to show that his power extended over this region.⁴

The history of this district is obscure for some time after this. Dharmapala, the Pala king of Bengal, seems to have annexed Ghazipur to his empire about 770 A.D. soon after his accession and he continued to hold it till the end of his reign using it as the base of his military operations in the battles fought in the Ganga-Yamuna doab with his opponents, the Gurjara Pratiharas and Rashtrakutas, for the possession of Kannauj.⁵ None of his rivals could dislodge him from this region which was probably included in the kingdom of his successor, Devapala (810—850 A.D.) as well.⁶

Gurjara Pratiharas

Under Bhojadeva I (c. 836—882 A.D.) the Gurjara Pratiharas were able to establish a mighty empire over the greater part of northern India, with the capital at Kannauj. Gunambhodhideva (Gunasagara I),⁷ the Kalachuri

1. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker A. D. : *The History and Culture of the Indian People*, Vol. III, pp. 112-113; Tripathi, *op. cit.*, pp. 118-119
2. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. : *The History and Culture of the Indian People*, Vol. III—*The Classical Age*, p. 127
3. Majumdar, R.C. : *Indian Antiquary*, Vol. VIII, p. 26; Altekar, *op. cit.*, p. 19; other scholars identify this north Indian adversary of Vinayaditya with Yashovarman of Kanauj; Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D. : (*The History and Culture of the Indian People—The Classical Age*, Vol. III, p. 130)
4. Altekar, *op. cit.*, p. 19; Tripathi, *op. cit.*, pp. 195--204
5. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D.: *The History and Culture of the Indian People*, Vol. IV, pp. 4-5, 22-23, 45-46; Tripathi, *op. cit.*, p. 214
6. *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, pp. 50-52; Altekar, *op. cit.*, p. 20
7. Puri, B.N. : *The History of the Gurjara Pratiharas*, (Bombay 1951), p. 56

ruler of Gorakhpur (about 160 km. the north-east of Varanasi), was a feudatory of Bhoja, as is evident from the Kahla plates.¹ Ghazipur no doubt, came under the sway of the Gurjara Pratiharas about this time (middle of the ninth century A.D.). About the close of the tenth century the hold of the Gurjara Pratiharas on Ghazipur became nominal or even doubtful. Then, for a time, this region might have come under the sway of the Pala king, Mahipala I (c. 992—1040 A.D.),² according to an inscription (dated 1026 A.D.) found in Sarnath. But the colophon of a Nepal manuscript of the *Ramayana* states that it was copied in *Samvat* 1076 (or A.D. 1019) when Gangeyadeva was ruling over Triabhukti (Tirhut).³ This Gangeyadeva is most probably the Chedi (or Kalachari) ruler Gangeyadeva (c. 1015—1041) of Tripuri. If his rule extended as far as Tirhut (in northern Bihar), Ghazipur must have been under his sway at this time. These two kings were continuously fighting with each other and this region might have come, for brief spells, alternately under the sway of each, finally passing under the control of Gangeyadeva.⁴

It was during the early part of this period that India suffered from the invasions of Mahmud Ghazni who sacked Kannauj in 1019.

Gahadavalas

For about a quarter of a century there was anarchy which was put to an end by Chandradeva, the founder of the Gahadavala dynasty who, about 1090, occupied this region and Kannauj. Chandradeva died about 1100 and was succeeded by his son, Madanpala (c. 1100—1114), who might have been the author of the *Madanavinoda-nighantu*, a work on medicine, which is ascribed to a king named Madana who was lord of Kashi.⁵ His son and successor, Govindachandra (c. 1114—1154), was the most illustrious king of the line. He made important conquests and carried on successful campaigns against the Palas, the Gandas, the king of Malwa and others and maintained diplomatic relations even with the distant kings of Kashmir and Cholanmandala.⁶ He also appears to have repulsed successfully the inroads of the Muslim invaders who tried to penetrate his kingdom on several occasions.⁷ Govindachandra's son and

1. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. VII, pp. 85-93; Tripathi, *op. cit.*, p. 239

2. Ray, H.C. : *Dynastic History of Northern India*, Vol. I, p. 316

3. *J.A.S.B.*, (1903), Part I, p. 18

4. Altekar, A.S. : *History of Benares*, p. 21

5. Tripathi, R.S. *op. cit.*, p. 328

6. *Ibid.*, pp. 328-329

7. Majumdar, R.C. and Pusalker, A.D., *op. cit.*, Vol. V, p. 95; Rama Niyogi: *History of the Gahadavala Dynasty*, p. 58; Habibullah: *The Foundation of Muslim Rule in India*, p. 59; *The Cambridge History of India*, Vol. III, p. 35; Tripathi, *op. cit.*, pp. 307-309

successor, Vijayachandra (1154—1170 A.D.), also stood as a bulwark against the Muslims¹ and kept his vast kingdom intact.

MEDIAEVAL PERIOD

Muslim Conquest

The Muslim conquest could not make itself effective in this region till about 1194 A.D. when Muhammad Ghuri defeated and overthrew Jaichand of Kannauj, occupied his kingdom and put Varanasi under Muslim garrison but its control over this region was nominal. Tradition relates that Qutb-ud-din Aibak once passed through the district and on to the banks of the Ghaghra but even this expedition does not appear to have had a lasting effect² and the local chiftains continued to exercise some sort of independence, particularly during the disturbed state of affairs at the Delhi court.

Foundation of Ghazipur

With the establishment of Zafarabad near Jaunpur in 1322 as the seat of government, the efforts to bring this region under effective Muslim dominance appear to have begun and extended into the reign of Muhammad bin Tughlaq and his successor, Firuz Shah, each of whom is believed to have followed the policy of colonising the remoter tracts with Muslims—a fact of considerable importance in estimating the traditional account of one Mir Amanullah of Zangipur written about 1104 A.H. (1713 A.D.) about the foundation of Ghazipur.³ When Firuz Shah built Jaunpur he made it the headquarters of a new province which included this district and the administration was entrusted first to Malik Sarvar Khwaja Jahan and then successively to his sons Zafar Khan and Nasir Khan and then to the latter's nephew, Alauddin.⁴

Jaunpur Kingdom

In 1394 Khwaja Jahan, the vazir of the kingdom was deputed to take charge of Jaunpur with the title of Sultan-ul-Sharq with full control of the territory extending from Kannauj to Bihar including the tract covered by Ghazipur.⁵ This action was necessitated by the refractory activities of the

1. Tripathi, *op. cit.*, p. 329; *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. IX, pp. 319-328

2. Nevill, H.R. : *District Gazetteers of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh*, Vol. XXIX, *Ghazipur*, (Allahabad, 1909), p. 158

3. Fisher, F.H. : *Statistical, Descriptive and Historical Account of the North-Western Provinces of India*, Vol. XIII-Part II, *Ghazipur*, (Allahabad, 1884), p. 92

4. Nevill, *op. cit.*, pp. 158-159; Rizvi, S.A.A. *Tughlaq Kalin Bharat*, Part 2, (Aligarh, 1959), p. 81

5. Sirhindi, Yahya Bin Ahmad Bin Abdull'ah : *The Tarikh-i-Mubarakshahi*, (Eng. Trans. by K.K. Basu), p. 164

local semi-independent chieftains who continued to withhold their allegiance to the Muslim overlords.¹ Khwaja Jahan went to his task with resolution and within a short time stamped out disaffection and brought the whole region assigned to him under firm control. By the time of his death (about 1399) Jaunpur had virtually become an independent kingdom and his adopted son and successor, Mubarak Shah, not only assumed all the marks of royalty and independence but even cherished the fond hope of acquiring the throne of Delhi.²

Lodi Sultans

The district appears to have remained under the undisputed sway of the Jaunpur kingdom till 1479 when Bahlul Lodi defeated its last ruler, Sultan Husain, and obliged him to flee to Bihar.³ Unfortunately the records of the Sharqi dyansty which are available do not reveal the shaping of events during the period of that dynasty in the district of Ghazipur, except that its rulers depended on the goodwill of the local Hindu population.

Bahlul put Mubarak Khan Nuhani in the city as governor and returned but no sooner had he gone than Husain Shah made a brief come back, ousted Mubarak Khan and reoccupied his lost kingdom.⁴ Bahlul, who made a hasty appearance, defeated the Sharqi king and in 1486 placed his eldest surviving son, Barbak, on the throne of this eastern kingdom.⁵

After the death of Bahlul, Barbak became almost an independent monarch and a potential danger to his brother, Sikandar, the sultan of Delhi. Barbak was defeated but Sikandar reinstated him on the throne of Jaunpur. Incompetent as he was, he failed to check the rising of the recalcitrant Hindu chieftains who were acting in league with the exiled Husain Shah. Sikandar Lodi was then compelled to march towards the east in order to subdue the rebellion, which was quickly done and Barbak was reinstated but he again proved to be incompetent, so that in 1493 Sikandar had once more to take the field.⁶ Reaching Varanasi he proceeded eastward and at a short distance from the city (probably a place in pargana Mahaich) inflicted a severe defeat on Husain Shah and his allies. Pursuing them for nine days he drove him to take refuge with the king of Bengal and then annexed all Bihar, which he placed under an Afghan governor.⁷ Being disgusted with the repeated incompetence of

1. *Ibid.*, p. 164

2. Lal, K.S. : *Twilight of the Sultanate*, p. 45 ; Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 159

3. Lal, K. S., *op. cit.*, p. 151

4. Ahmad, Khwaja Nizam-ud-din : *Tabaqat-i-Akbari*, Vol. I, p. 353

5. Lal, K. S., *op. cit.*, p. 151

6. *Ibid.*, pp. 168-169

7. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 159

Barbak, Sikandar now bestowed Jaunpur on Mubarak Khan Mujikhail and placed Barbak in confinement.¹ The first reference of Ghazipur (in its present name) occurs with the appointment of one Nasir Khan Nuhani as its governor but the historical records do not afford the precise date and year of his appointment. There is reason to believe that this must have occurred about this time. He held the place for a considerable time and under his administration Ghazipur is believed to have prospered. It is said that a new fort was constructed, replacing that at Hamzapur and that many new *muhallas* were built which were colonised by numerous Muslim settlers, the stream of immigration which then commenced lasting till the end of the 16th century.² The post was considered important owing to its proximity to Bihar, at that time the most turbulent portion of Hindustan.

Sikandar died on November 21, 1517, and Ibrahim Lodi was crowned as the new king,³ his younger brother, Jalal Khan, simultaneously declaring himself king of Jaunpur and remaining independent for a considerable time. At first Ibrahim Lodi appears to have consented quietly to such an arrangement but soon after he was convinced of the folly of allowing an independent king to rule within one single Afghan empire. Ultimately it was decided that the allegiance of Jalal Khan be obtained either by persuasion or by active military operation. By this time Nasir Khan Nuhani, the governor of Ghazipur, had acquired so much prestige and strength that the sultan thought it expedient to enlist his support in suppressing the claims of Jalal. He sent his personal messenger to Nasir Khan Nuhani with rich presents and a special *khilat*, asking him not to recognise Jalal.⁴ In the war which now ensued between the two brothers, Jalal was defeated and captured and the entire kingdom of Jaunpur including this district fell into the hands of Ibrahim though the local Afghan nobility still remained in ostensible control of the region.⁵ These noblemen, being disgusted at the suspicious and revengeful attitude of the sultan, rose in open rebellion and set up as sultan one Bahadur Khan, the son of Darya Khan Nuhani, the late governor of Bihar, and this man assumed the title of Muhammad Shah.⁶ It appears that Nasir Khan of Ghazipur at first remained loyal to his old master but he was defeated by Mian Mustafa, who plundered the town, whereupon the governor went over to Muhammad Shah and was presumably reinstated.⁷

1. Pandey, A.B. : *The First Afghan Empire in India*, p. 124

2. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 160

3. Lal, K.S., *op. cit.*, p. 198

4. *Ibid.*, p. 200

5. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 160

6. *Ibid.*; Ahmad, Khwaja Nizār—~~ahmad~~, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 206

7. *Ibid.*; Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 160

Babar

After the battle of Panipat (April 21, 1526) the rule of the Lodi dynasty came to an end and Babar became the ruler of Delhi. The first task which attracted the new king's attention was the subordination of the recalcitrant nobility of the east which had lately become powerful and arrogant. Nasir Khan Nuhani had advanced as far as Kannauj and an immediate step to prevent his further march was a prime necessity.¹ Accordingly prince Humayun was despatched to the east and he conquered Jaunpur and punished Nasir Khan and obliged him to flee from Ghazipur,² which came into Humayun's possession. But he made only a short stay here as he was recalled by the emperor to aid him in fighting the Rajput confederacy and the Afghans under Mahmud Khan, Sikandar's son.³ It appears that the district was soon recaptured by the Afghans, so Babar left Agra on January 20, 1529, to deal with the Afghan menace and reached Ghazipur where he obtained the submission of Mahmud Khan and Jalal Khan.⁴ It is also believed that on the same occasion Nasir Khan submitted in person; but the town seems to have been bestowed upon his son or relative Mahmud Khan Nuhani, who had joined Babar some time previously and was known by the surname of Ghazipuri.⁵ Babar continued his operations and subdued almost all the rebellious Afghans.

Humayun

Soon after his return Babar died, and his successor, Humayun, had once again to take out an expedition to the east, where the Afghans had set up Jala-lud-din Nuhani, Mahmud's son, as their sovereign. All the defeated Afghans allied themselves with the king of their own creation, the chief among whom was Farid Khan Suri, better known as Sher Khan and afterwards as Sher Shah.⁶ This man gained possession of Bihar ousting his master but the Afghans refused to submit to his authority and reinstated Mahmud Khan Lodi, Sikandar Lodi's son.

In 1530, while Humayun was engaged in the siege of Kalinjar, Mahmud Lodi captured Jaunpur and obliged the Mughal garrison to retreat.⁷ Sher Khan, it is said, had promised his help to Mahmud in his adventure in the hope of getting Bihar in the event of success.⁸

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1. Rushbrook Williams, L.F. : *An Empire builder of the Sixteenth Century*, p. 14
 2. Ahmad, Khwaja Nizam-ud-din : *Tabaqat-i-Akbari*, Vol. II, pp. 34-35
 3. *Ibid.* ; Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 160
 4. Tripathi, R.P. : *Rise and Fall of the Mughal Empire*, p. 50
 5. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 161
 6. *Ibid.*, p. 161
 7. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 69
 8. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 161

Success appears to have attended the arms of Mahmud only till his forces met the Mughals near Lucknow on the right bank of the Sai, where Sher Khan treacherously withdrew his forces, retiring to Chunar and leaving Mahmud to be defeated.¹ For his desertion at this critical juncture Sher Khan had hoped to obtain the possession of Chunar from Humayun. But his expectations, proved false, for shortly after his victory over the Afghans, Humayun asked Sher Khan to surrender the fort of Chunar.² Bahadur Shah, the ruler of Gujarat's activity in Rajputana obliged Humayun to come to terms with Sher Khan and accordingly the latter was allowed to retain Chunar.³ The absence of Humayun in Gujarat enabled Sher Khan to strengthen his power in the east so that when he again came in conflict with the Mughals in 1536 he had acquired definite ascendancy over them in the field.⁴

Surs

In 1539 the district once again fell to the Afghans under Sher Khan, who defeated Humayun at Chausa and assumed the title of Sher Shah at Varanasi.⁵ This victory decided the fate of Ghazipur for the next twenty years as it remained in undisturbed possession of the Afghans, not only through the reign of the three emperors of the house of Sur but also through the second reign of Humayun and the first few years of the reign of Akbar.⁶

Nothing worthy of note appears to have occurred in Ghazipur during the reigns of Sher Shah and his successor, Islam Shah, as no contemporary chronicler makes even a passing reference to the district.

There is reason to believe that during the convulsion which followed the death of Islam Shah in 1553, the district witnessed a state of hopelessness and disorder.

In the meanwhile Humayun reoccupied his lost kingdom but died soon after and his young son, Akbar, made himself the master of Hindustan after the battle of Panipat in 1556. The Afghans continued to hold sway in the east, including this district, for about three years till in 1559

1. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, pp. 70-71

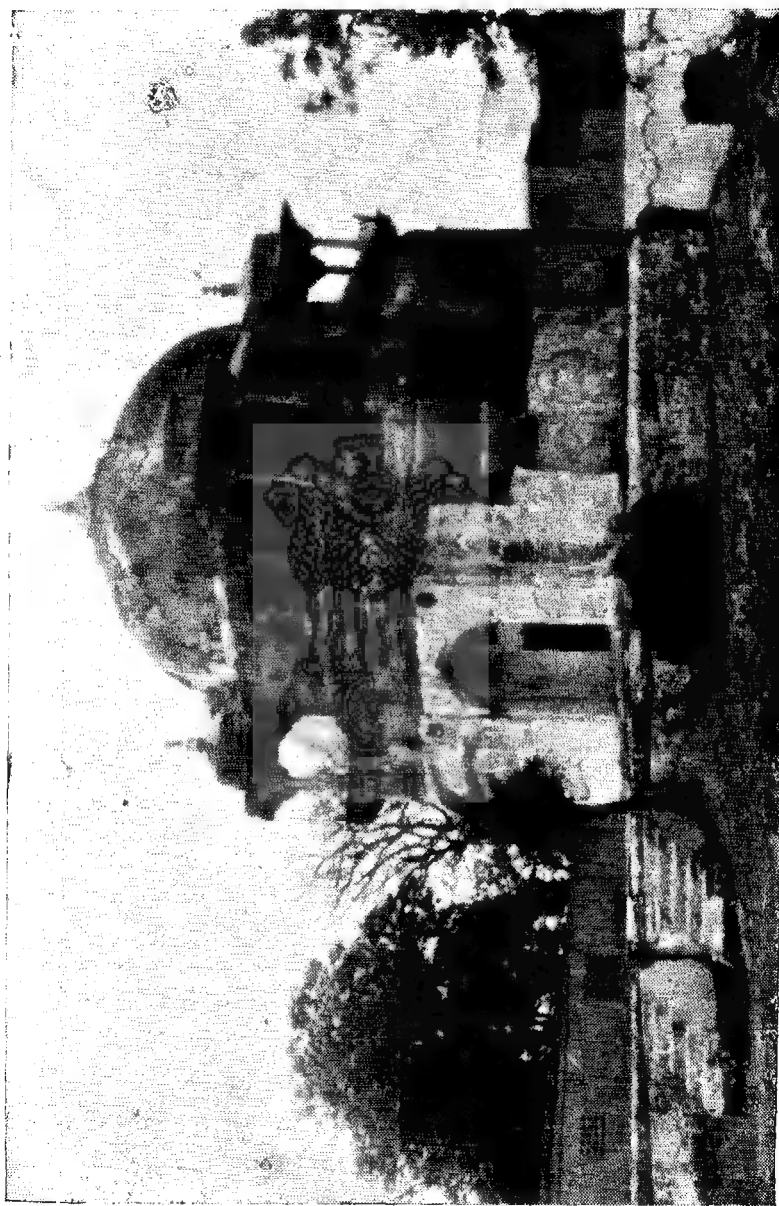
2. *Ibid.*, p. 71

3. *Ibid.*, p. 72

4. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 161

5. Fisher, *op. cit.*, p. 94; Tripathi, *op. cit.*, p. 98

6. Oldham, Wilton: *Historical and Statistical Memoir of the Ghazeepeer District*, Part I, (Allahabad, 1867), p. 79



Tomb of Pahar Khan, a well-known *faujdar* of Ghazipur

Ali Quli Khan Khan Zaman subdued the region for his young sovereign and founded the town of Zamania,¹ bringing the district of Ghazipur into his possession.

Akbar

In early 1565, Khan Zaman (now the governor of Jaunpur) rebelled against Akbar and with him the entire body of Uzbek dissidents broke into open revolt. On May 24, Akbar marched to Jaunpur and captured it and a reconciliation was effected between the half-hearted rebel and the emperor through the mediation of Munim Khan.² Ghazipur, which was then held by one Qasim Ali Khan, appears to have remained unaffected by this outbreak but no sooner had Akbar left Jaunpur for Varanasi than Khan Zaman again rebelled and his brother, Bahadur Khan, recaptured Jaunpur and Ghazipur and plundered Varanasi.³ Akbar hurriedly came back to chastise the rebels and sent one Jafar Khan to recapture Ghazipur and quell the rebellion. Jafar Khan attacked the fort of Ghazipur but the men of the garrison let themselves down from the walls of the fort into the river Ganga and fled to Muhammadabad.⁴ Hearing of this discomfiture, Khan Zaman once again sought for peace and pardon which was granted. Once more Khan Zaman proved faithless, as when Akbar was in Lahore in 1567, he again rebelled but this time the rebellion was crushed with terrible carnage and the destruction of all the prominent rebels including Khan Zaman himself and his brother, Bahadur Khan.

The government of Jaunpur, Varanasi, Chunar, Ghazipur and Zamania was then given to Munim Khan Khan-i-Khanan who administered his territories with great success for many years.⁵ At the time of taking over charge Zamania was held by Asad-ullah Khan, an officer of Khan Zaman who, on hearing of the rebel's death, offered the place to Sulaiman Kirani of Bengal but Munim Khan forestalled him and the Afghan army of occupation retired, peace being eventually made between Munim and the Bengal ruler.⁶ This peace lasted till 1572 when Sulaiman died and his successor, Daud Khan, subverted his policy of reconciliation, shook off allegiance and assumed sovereignty. He, along with his chief officer, Lodi Khan, attacked Zamania and razed the fort to the ground. The Afghans met the Mughals near Ghazipur but neither side initiated the attack, Munim Khan, fearing a definite defeat at the hands of the

1. Fisher, *op. cit.*, p. 94; Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 162

2. Majumdar, R.C. and Chaudhuri, J.N. : *The History and Culture of the Indian People*, Vol. VII—*The Mughal Empire*, p. 118

3. Tripathi, R.P., *op. cit.*, p. 195

4. Ahmad, Khwaja Nizam-ud-din, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 311

5. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 163; Tripathi, *op. cit.*, pp. 199-200

6. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 163

powerful Afghans, biding his time till the Afghans themselves offered peace due to division in their own ranks.¹

Meanwhile reinforcements reached from the emperor and Munim Khan commenced his operations against the Afghans. Mohammad Qasim surrendered Zamania to the Mughal forces and Mirza Husain Khan, a Mughal general, defeated a united force of Afghans across the Ganga, before Munim Khan could reach Ghazipur.² Lodi Khan, who had entrenched himself near the confluence of the Ganga and the Karamnasa, was persuaded to come to terms.³ At length Akbar himself was obliged to conduct an expedition by river against the Afghans, passing on the way through Ghazipur.

On the termination of hostilities, the government of Bengal was conferred on Munim Khan and Jaunpur and its dependencies were brought directly under imperial management, the officers in charge being Mirak Rizvi and Shaikh Ibrahim Sikri. In 1576 Jaunpur was given to Masum Khan Farankhudi, who had received Ghazipur a year earlier but in 1581 it was given to Tarsum Muhammad Khan, Pahar Khan being made *faujdar* of Ghazipur, a post which he held for a long period, although on several occasions he was employed in distant campaigns. He built a tank at Ghazipur where his tomb is still standing.

Akbar's Administration

It was in Akbar's days that Ghazipur was incorporated into the Mughal empire and after the administrative division of his empire it became the seat of government and the capital of a sirkar in the province of Allahabad.⁴ This sirkar contained 19 *mahals* or parganas comprising most of the present district and the neighbouring parts of Ballia, Shahabad and Azamgarh. The *Ain-i-Akbari* affords considerable information as to the state of the district at that time, showing the state of cultivation, the revenue and the principal landholders of each pargana.⁵ The *malal* of Ghazipur with its tracts had a cultivated area of 12,325 bighas, affording a land revenue of 5,70,350 dams, with Kayasthas and Rajputs being its principal landholders. It is surprising that in spite of being the seat of government, Ghazipur provided a paltry contingent of 10 horse and 20 foot.⁶ This may have been due either to the severe devastation which it suffered at the hands of the Mughal and Afghan armies during the wars or the local zamindars had been so demoralised militarily that they could

1. Tripathi, *op. cit.*, p. 214

2. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 163

3. *Ibid.*

4. Abul Fazl : *Ain-i-Akbari.*, Vol. II (English Translation by H.S.Jarrett), p. 173

5. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 164

6. Abul Fazl, *op. cit.*, p. 173

not promise a larger fighting force. Pachotar was principally inhabited by Rajputs, having an area of 13,679 bighas under tillage and yielding a revenue of 6,98,204 dams. It supplied 50 cavalry and 2,000 infantry.¹ Bahriabad was another Rajput *mahal* having 6,984 bighas of cultivation, paying a revenue of 3,55,340 dams and supplying a contingent of 200 foot.² The *mahal* of Zahurabad was held by Brahmanas, who supplied a force of 20 horse and 500 foot and land revenue of 6,57,808 dams assessed on an area of 13,803 bighas. Dehma was a small Rajput *mahal* with 2,809 bighas of tillage and a revenue of 1,28,815 dams, the local levies being 50 footmen. Muhammadabad Parharbari, which at that time jointly formed a *mahal*, had a tillage of 48,775 bighas and was assessed at 22,60,707 dams. It was held by Brahmanas who provided a levy of 100 horse and 2,000 foot.³ Later this *mahal* came to include the scattered *mahal* of Qarial Pali which contained but 1,394 bighas of cultivated land and was assessed at 75,467 dams. The present *mahal* of Zamania, which then was known as Madan Benares, was held by Brahmanas who paid 27,60,000 dams on 66,548 bighas of cultivation and furnished 50 horse and 5,000 foot. Karanda was another Rajput *mahal* paying a revenue of 2,93,515 dams on an area of 6,261 bighas. It provided a military force of 300 infantry. Saidpur Namdi had a cultivated area of 25,721 bighas, an assessment of 12,50,280 dams and the Brahmana zamindars contributed 20 cavalry and 1,000 infantry. There was also a small *mahal* called Balaich or Baraich, which probably drew its name from the village of Baraich on the Ganga (there was till 1840 a *taluka* (taluk) so called comprising 17 villages to the west of Ghazipur). It had 2,256 bighas of cultivation and paid 1,12,461 dams but who the zamindars of this *mahal* were is not specified in the *Ain-i-Akbari*.⁴

The remaining parganas of Shadiabad, Bhitri and Khanpur belonged to the sirkar of Jaunpur. The first had 30,848 bighas under tillage and was assessed at 17,00,742 dams, the Rajput owners supplying 10 cavalry and 400 infantry.⁵ Khanpur was again a Rajput *mahal* with 6,629 bighas of cultivation, yielding a revenue of 3,06,020 dams and providing a contingent of 150 foot. Bhitri was inhabited by Ansari Sheikhs (perhaps one of the early Muslim settlers of this region) and provided a contingent of 10 cavalry and 100 infantry. They paid a land revenue of 8,44,357 dams on 17,703 bighas of tillage.⁶ Pargana Mahaich was part of the sirkar of Chunar and was probably held by Gaharwars (though the *Ain-i-Akbari*

1. *Ibid.*

2. *Ibid.*

3. Nevill, H. R., *op. cit.*, p. 165

4. Abul Fazl, *op. cit.*, p. 173

5. *Ibid.*, p. 175

6. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 166

does not mention any landholders) ; the cultivated area was 7,950 bighas and the revenue 3,90,609 dams.

The figures given above are expressive of the high and surprisingly even incidence of land revenue in those days. It is to be noted that Akbar did not recognise the existence of the landlord class ; the system initiated by Akbar checked to some extent the oppression of the middleman and the private rentier.

The area then under the plough in district Ghazipur was 1,39,803 acres yielding a revenue of no less than Rs 3,10,117, exclusive of Rs 3,238 as *sayurghal* (cess) or assignments for religious, charitable and other purposes. This gave an incidence of Rs 2.24 per acre. In 1870, when the data of the district of Ghazipur was collected and the incidence of land revenue was worked out, it was found to be about Rs 2 per acre as against Rs 1.50 in 1870.¹ Thus it can be concluded that the revenue assessment was astonishingly severe if it be remembered that in Akbar's days the purchasing power of the rupee was at least four times as great as in 1870.²

Akbar's Successors

After the pacification of Bengal the history of Ghazipur becomes obscure, only stray references being forth coming without affording details of any activities—social, economic or political. After the death of Pahar Khan, the post of *faujdar* came to be occupied by Mirza Sultan, a prince of the royal family of the Mughals who was sent to Ghazipur as a measure of punishment where he died. During the reign of Shahjahan and during the earlier years of Aurangzeb's reign the governor was Nawab Sufi Bahadur, who built the mosque at Nauli in pargana Zamania.³ He was succeeded by a Sheikh (whose name has been corrupted to Nawab Anik-ullah Khan) a resident of Ghazipur, who remained in charge till after Aurangzeb's death. During his reign the Niazi Pathans rose in strength and reputation and obtained a grant of land from the subedar of Allahabad in return for personal services rendered. They first attempted to seize Birpur (in district Ghazipur) but, being resisted by the Bhuinhars, established themselves in Ghauspur and in pargana Mahaich when Hatim Khan built the fort of Hatimpur.

MODERN PERIOD

Later Mughals

At the time of Aurangzeb's death in 1707, the bulk of the present

1. Smith, V.A. : *Akbar the Great Moghul*, p. 378; Nevill, *op. cit.*, pp. 165-66

2. *Ibid.*

3. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 166

district was included in the sirkar of Ghazipur in the subah of Allahabad.¹ After his death the grip of the Central Government upon the provincial governors gradually loosened leading to their becoming practically independent. His sons, Azam and Muazzam, now started fighting between themselves over the division of the empire and when the latter succeeded to the throne as Bahadur Shah I, he brought Ghazipur directly under his sway. In 1712 his eldest son, Jahandar Shah, succeeded him but ruled only for a fortnight or so and Ghazipur passed into the hands of Farrukh Siyar who became the emperor on January 11, 1713. On April 27-28, 1719, Farrukh Siyar was murdered and Muhammad Shah ascended the throne on September 28. In his reign, Sheo Narayan, a famous ascetic (who founded the Sheo-narayani sect) resided at Ghazipur. He produced eleven volumes in Hindi verse on religion. Muhammad Shah gave in jagir to Murtaza Khan (one of his courtiers) the sirkars of Ghazipur, Varanasi, Jaunpur and Chunar (the whole area corresponding roughly to the present districts of Ghazipur, Varanasi, Jaunpur, Azamgarh and Ballia and the eastern portion of district Mirzapur).² Murtaza Khan entrusted the management of these territories to Rustam Ali Khan (a relative) for a consideration of five lakhs of rupees annually, the latter having the right to retain any surplus revenue for himself but he could not realise the revenue from most of the zamindars.³

Nawab Vizirs of Avadh

A considerable change occurred in these parts when Saadat Khan was made subedar of Avadh in 1722.⁴ About 1728 Murtaza Khan leased his jagir to Saadat Khan for an annual sum of seven lakhs of rupees, who allowed Rustam Ali Khan to continue to manage his estate for eight lakhs of rupees annually.⁵ Ghazipur thus passed under the sway of the nawab of Avadh.⁶ Rustam Ali Khan retained the charge of these tracts till 1738 when he incurred the displeasure of Saadat Khan. Rustam Ali Khan had begun to depend a good deal on his deputies the chief among whom was Mansa Ram, a Gautam Bhuinhar zamindar of Gangapur in Varanasi.⁷ Saadat Khan, therefore, directed his nephew and son-in-law, Safdar Jang, to call Rustam Ali Khan to account. Instead of settling the matter himself Rustam Ali Khan sent Mansa Ram for negotiations, thus paving the way for his own fall and the advancement of Mansa Ram who

1. Gill, J.E., and Fisher, F.H. : *Statistical, Descriptive and Historical Account of the North-Western Provinces of India, Vol. XIII, Part II, Ghazipur*, (Allahabad, 1884), p. 94
2. Srivastava, A.L. : *Awadh ke Pratham do Nawab* (Hindi translation of the *First Two Nawabs of Awadh*), (Agra, 1957), p. 47
3. *Ibid.*
4. Oldham, W. : *Historical and Statistical Memoir of the Ghazipur District, Part I*, (Allahabad, 1876), p. 88
5. *Ibid.*, pp. 88-89 ; Srivastava, A.L., *op. cit.*, p. 47
6. Gill, J.E. and Fisher, F.H., *op. cit.*, p. 94
7. Srivastava, A.L., *op. cit.*, p. 203

secured for himself, in the name of his son, Balwant Singh, the office of *nazim* of the sirkars of Varanasi, Jaunpur and Chunar.¹ The remaining sirkar of Ghazipur was handed over to Sheikh Abdullah,² the son of a zamindar named Muhammad Qasim, a Siddiqi Sheikh of village Dharwara in pargana Zahurabad. Sheikh Abdullah was probably the only man of eminence that the district had produced and who was one of the few rulers of Ghazipur who had done anything to beautify the city of Ghazipur.³ He built the forts at Jalalabad (in pargana Shadiabad) and at Qasimabad, which he named after his father. He also constructed a bridge over the river Mangai on the road to Qasimabad and in the city of Ghazipur erected the palace known as Chihal Satun, a mosque and an *imambara* as well as a masonry tank and also made the garden called the Nawab Bagh.⁴ He died in 1744 and was buried in a handsome tomb in the city of Ghazipur. He left four sons, of whom the eldest, Fazl Ali, was then absent from Ghazipur, in consequence of which his younger brother, Karam Ullah, was installed as *faujdar* of Ghazipur. But Fazl Ali applied to Safdar Jang and obtained the charge of Ghazipur as *faujdar* on condition of paying an additional lakh of rupees and also received the titles of Saif Jang and Muntaz-ul-mulk.⁵ The tussle between Fazl Ali and Karam Ullah continued till the death of Karam Ullah in 1748.⁶

In September, 1750, when Safdar Jang was defeated by Ahmad Khan Bangash of Farrukhabad, the latter deputed a force under his step-brother, Muhammad Amin Khan, to occupy Ghazipur, from where Fazl Ali fled without offering any resistance.⁷ But Muhammad Amin Khan could not maintain his hold on Ghazipur and in the following year Fazl Ali recovered it without opposition. Meanwhile in October, 1753, Balwant Singh (Mansa Ram's son) raided Latifpur, a fortress 24 miles south of Varanasi and treacherously killed the commandant, Malik Ahmad. In order to save his life Malik Ahsan, the brother of the deceased, fled to Zamania.⁸

Fazl Ali was once again removed from Ghazipur shortly after

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1. *Ibid.*; *Proceedings of the Indian Historical Records Commission*, Vol. XIV, (1937), p. 65
 2. Srivastava, A.L., *op. cit.*, p. 203; Gill, J.E. and Fisher, F.H., *op. cit.*, p. 94
 3. Oldham, W., *op. cit.*, Part I, p. 89
 4. Gill and Fisher, *op. cit.*, pp. 94-95; Oldham, W., *op. cit.*, Part I, p. 90
 5. Oldham, W., *op. cit.*, Part I, p. 91
 6. *Ibid.*
 7. *Ibid.*; Srivastava, A.L., *op. cit.*, pp. 172, 180; Sardesai, G.S. : *New History of the Marathas*, Vol. II, (Bombay, 1948), p. 361
 8. Srivastava, A.L. : *Shuja-ud-Daulah*, Vol. I, p. 26

the accession of Shuja-ud-daula in 1754, owing to his failure to pay the stipulated revenue.¹ Ghazipur was then bestowed on one Muhammad Ali Khan but as he proved unable to keep the Rajputs of this area under control, he was removed and Fazl Ali was once more restored to his lost position, Azamgarh being added to his jurisdiction. This augmentation of his charge was accompanied with deterioration in the discharge of his official duty. He oppressed the people to such an extent that eventually, in 1757, Shuja-ud-daula's ministers, Beni Bahadur and Balwant Singh, were sent to Ghazipur. Fazl Ali attempted armed resistance but was defeated and fled to Patna and Ghazipur was handed over to Balwant Singh on an annual revenue of eight lakhs of rupees.²

Rajas of Varanasi (Banaras)

Balwant Singh was the best administrator that the people of Ghazipur had known in the eighteenth century although his administration was constantly hampered by the strained relations existing between himself and Shuja-ud-daula. A consistent feature of his policy was the suppression of the zamindars and their replacement by *amils*.

In spite of his unwillingness to do so, Balwant Singh was compelled to join Shuja-ud-daula, Shah Alam the emperor and Mir Qasim against the English in the battle of Buxar in 1764 which was fought close to the borders of Ghazipur. Though he supplied 2,000 horse and 5,000 foot, his lukewarm attitude led Shuja-ud-daula to stop him from taking an active part in the battle. Consequently the nawab of Avadh detached Balwant Singh's forces from the main body, sending him across the Ganga to hold the Muhammadabad pargana³ (in this district). Carnae (the British commander) despatched a detachment under Champion to Ghazipur in June, 1764.⁴ Shortly after the defeat of the combined armies at Buxar (October 23, 1764), Shah Alam retreated to the town of Zamania (in this district) on October 28, where he met Suchit Ram, the agent (at Varanasi) of Shitab Rai who had been playing the role of mediator between the fallen emperor (Shah Alam) and the British. From Zamania Shah Alam went to Varanasi.⁵ On December 29, Shah Alam entered into a treaty with the British at Varanasi, whereby the province of Benares (Varanasi), including Ghazipur, was transferred to the East India Company.

The East India Company

The company in its turn leased out the zamindari of the province

1. Oldham, W., *op. cit.*, Part I, p. 91

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 91-92

3. Gill and Fisher, *op. cit.*, p. 95

4. Srivastava, A.L. : *Shuja-ud-Daulah*, Vol. I, (Agra, 1961), p. 187

5. *Ibid.*, pp. 220-221

to Balwant Singh who agreed that a British Resident be posted at Ramnagar.¹ But the court of directors in England refused to accept this provision of the treaty and in its place an agreement was made at Allahabad in 1765 between Clive and Shuja-ud-daula whereby the latter agreed to restore the territory of Ghazipur to Balwant Singh.

Balwant Singh died on August 23, 1770, and his estate was bestowed on his son, Chait Singh, who continued to govern it on the lines laid down by his father.² In September, 1773, a conference was arranged at Varanasi between Shuja-ud-daula and Warren Hastings regarding the confirmation of Chait Singh in his paternal estate. On the eve of the conference, Warren Hastings arrived at Saidpur (in this district) where he was met by Chait Singh.³ At Varanasi the latter's position was confirmed by the nawab of Avadh and the governor general and Chait Singh obtained a sanad for his estates at a perpetual and fixed revenue of Rs 22,48,499 to be paid to the nawab annually.⁴

In 1775 Shuja-ud-daula died and was succeeded by his son, Asaf-ud-daula. On May 21, 1775, the treaty of Lucknow was signed between Asaf-ud-daula and the East India Company by which he agreed to cede to the Company in perpetuity the sovereignty of Ghazipur, Varanasi, Jaunpur and a portion of Mirzapur (till now held by Chait Singh) together with the land cesses and water duties.⁵ But the administrative power of Chait Singh remained much the same as before.⁶ In the following year, on April 15, he was granted a sanad by the English confirming him in the zamindari of these districts.⁷

In the beginning Warren Hastings took interest in the affairs of Chait Singh who granted the English a virtual monopoly for the purchase of opium in Ghazipur.⁸ But subsequently strained relations arose between them when Warren Hastings demanded five lakhs of rupees as an extraordinary subsidy to meet the expenses of the East India Company's army. Chait Singh paid the sum though with great reluctance but when the

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1. *Balwantnamah* by Khair-ud-din Muhammad (English translation by F. Curwen; Allahabad, 1875), pp. 52-53
 2. Srivastava, A.L. : *Shuja-ud-Daulah*, Vol. II, (Lahore, 1945), pp. 157-158
 3. Oldham, W., *op. cit.*, Part I, p. 108
 4. *Ibid*, p. 222; Gill and Fisher, *op. cit.*, p. 96; Aitchison, C.U. : *A Collection of Treaties, Engagements and Sanads, relating to India and Neighbouring Countries*, Vol. II, (Calcutta, 1876), p. 76; Hastings, Warren: *Narrative of the Insurrection in The Zemeedary of Banaris*, (Calcutta, 1782), p. ■
 5. Bhanu, Dharma : *History and Administration of the North-Western Provinces (Subsequently called the Agra Province)*, (Agra, 1957), p. 72; Aitchison, C.U., *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 76; Gill and Fisher, *op. cit.*, p. 96
 6. Nevill, H.R. : *Ghazipur, A Gazetteer*, (Allahabad, 1909), p. 170
 7. Gill and Fisher, *op. cit.*, p. 98
 8. Askari, Syed Hasan : *Chait Singh and Hastings from Persian Sources—Proceedings of the Indian Historical Records Commission*, Vol. XXX, Part II, (1954), p. 15

demand was repeated and he tried to avoid it, Warren Hastings realized the money with the help of the army.¹ Chait Singh now tried to exterminate the power of the British who, when becoming cognisant of this, called in their arm from Patna to chastise Chait Singh,² who was ultimately deposed in 1781³.

The deposition of Chait Singh brought about a complete alteration in the administration of Ghazipur. His successor, Mahip Narain Singh (Balwant Singh's young grandson) was a nonentity and the power vested in his deputy, who joined the *amils* in embezzling the amounts due to Mahip Narain Singh and in harassing the people by every form of extortion.⁴ Warren Hastings had made some attempts at improving matters but he failed to set the affairs of Ghazipur on a firm basis. He gave large jagirs in Ghazipur to his favourites and subordinate officials. Thus Azim Ali Khan (the nephew of Fazl Ali) was awarded a grant of Rs 10,000 annually. On Beni Ram Pandit was bestowed the pargana of Bahirabad and Saidpur was handed over to Ausan Singh, the dismissed deputy of Chait Singh. The jagir of Mahaich which was awarded by Balwant Singh to his son-in-law, Drigbijai Singh, was resumed by the British in 1782 and settled with Gahadvala zamindars.⁵

The maladministration in Ghazipur was further aggravated by the conduct of the earlier Residents, particularly the notorious Francis Fowke, who imposed several illegal cesses for his own benefit and was generally in league with his treasurer, Kashmiri Mal, on whom he bestowed the entire pargana of Shadiabad (in this district).⁶ Kashmiri Mal was deprived of his property in 1786 and his post was given to Nawab Sher Jang under whom the condition of Ghazipur did not improve in any way. Parts of the present district like Zahurabad and Pachotar had been reduced to terrible poverty by the long-continued oppression of the peasantry. In pargana Shadiabad a large area had gone out of cultivation. Zamania was both distressed and discontented, so much so that in the beginning of 1787 Treves, the assistant Resident, had to proceed there in person to quell the disturbances.⁷ Such was the state of this region when Jonathan Duncan was appointed Resident at Varanasi by Lord Cornwallis in July, 1787. He remained Resident for eight years and introduced certain reforms in Ghazipur. He established a court at the town of Ghazipur,

1. *Ibid.*, pp. 18-19

2. Saleore, G.N.: *Selections from English Records—Benares Affairs* (1810—1858), Vol. II, (Allahabad, 1959), pp. 5-6

3. Nevill, H. R., *op. cit.*, p. 171

4. *Ibid.*; *Report of the United Provinces Zamindari Abolition Committee*, Vol. I, (Allahabad, 1948), p. 92

5. Nevill, H. R., *op. cit.*, pp. 124-125

6. *Ibid.*, p. 125; *Report of the United Provinces Zamindari Abolition Committee*, Vol. I, p. 93

7. Nevill, H. R., *op. cit.*, p. 125

a *maulvi* being appointed chief judge, on a monthly salary of Rs 400, the police posted in the town being placed under his control. He was authorised to award a sentence up to twenty stripes, or a week's imprisonment, without reference and to submit for the Resident's approval such cases in which he felt a more severe punishment needed to be inflicted. In civil cases an appeal lay to the Resident whose decision was final in all cases in which the value did not exceed Rs 1,000. In cases where the value exceeded Rs 1,000, an appeal against his judgement lay to the *sadr adalat* (supreme court) in Calcutta. The Muhammadan law applied in criminal matters and in civil cases the law of the religion of the defendant¹ was applied.

Lord Cornwallis died at Ghazipur on October 5, 1805 and was buried there.

In 1818, the frequency of agrarian riots, especially due to undetermined boundaries and the increasing volume of litigation, led to the formation of the Ghazipur district.² In 1839—41, the survey of the district was carried out and the boundaries of villages fixed, village and field maps made and lists prepared under the superintendence of settlement officers, showing the ownership and occupancy of each field.³

Struggle of 1857-58

The district continued in a disturbed state, owing to the general discontent of the zamindars at their ejectment by auction-purchasers, till the revolt of 1857 broke out. At that time the district was a great recruiting ground for the regiments from whom the British expected loyalty. The garrison then stationed at Ghazipur was the 65th Native Infantry,⁴ which had returned from Burma but for want of leadership could not follow the footsteps of their brother soldiers who had joined the struggle in other parts of the country. Although the Ghazipur treasury contained Rs 5,00,000, the British felt no anxiety and sent away to Varanasi the 100 sepoys of the 10th Foot who had come to protect Ghazipur. A great change occurred when the Europeans were driven from Azamgarh on June 3. They managed to reach Ghazipur but their flight was the signal for general confusion as the local population rushed against them and the authorities failed to prevent them from entering even the court house. Within three days the state of the district had become one of civil war.⁵ When the troops stationed at Varanasi rose against the British on June 4

1. Gill and Fisher, *op. cit.*, p. 99

2. Nevill, H. R., *op. cit.*, p. 129

3. Gill and Fisher, *op. cit.*, pp. 64-65

4. Rizvi, S.A.A. (Ed.): *Freedom Struggle in Uttar Pradesh*, Vol. IV, (Lucknow, 1950), p. 115

5. Gill and Fisher, *op. cit.*, p. 101

and the whole of the surrounding country plunged into anarchy, the pargana of Saidpur perhaps fell into a greater state of disorder than the rest of either the Varanasi or Ghazipur districts.¹ Robbery and violence were rife, the auction-purchasers being the chief victims, the police were helpless and dacoities were committed in the court house itself. The situation was now dangerous for the British, the more so on account of the money kept in the treasury.² As a precautionary measure martial law was proclaimed and summary punishment was inflicted on those who were found defying the British authority. On July 6 the British destroyed village Chaura (in tahsil Ghazipur) the inhabitants of which had attacked and plundered the property of a British indigo planter named Matthews.³ On July 27, when it was learnt that the sepoys of Dinapur had risen against the British, great alarm prevailed in Ghazipur. The presence of a European detachment could not restore confidence among the officers who apprehended that the rising of the sepoys of the 65th Native Infantry (most of whom were residents of this district) would mean a general rising in the district.⁴ Therefore, on August 10, the 65th Native Infantry was disbanded.⁵ As a further precautionary measure the British provisioned the opium factory so as to serve as a place of refuge in time of danger. By this time the civil authorities were able to resume their ordinary duties in addition to the task of collecting stores and of conveying them to the troops. It is illustrative of the comparative security at Ghazipur that throughout the freedom struggle the operations at the opium factory were carried on as usual.⁶

The security of the British in the district was shortlived. In March, 1858, the successful retreat of Kunwar Singh (the well-known freedom fighter of Bihar) through district Azamgarh to Jagdishpur (his fortified residence in Bihar) stirred up the struggle in the southern part of Ghazipur, especially in tahsil Zamania where government buildings were burnt and sacked and the supporters of the British were hunted out.⁷

On being ejected from Jagdishpur on June 3, 1858, the troops of Kunwar Singh turned towards Ghazipur under his brother, Amar Singh. Joined by the Avadh fighters, they arrived at village Gahmar (in pargana Zamania) where they were also joined by many of its inhabitants under the leadership of Maghar Rai who received supplies from the residents of Naoli, Bara, Karepa and Bhora after which they commenced depredations

1. Rizvi, S.A.A., *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 120

2. Gill and Fisher, *op. cit.*, p. 101

3. Rizvi, S.A.A., *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 116; Nevill, H.R., *op. cit.*, p. 173

4. Rizvi, S.A.A., *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 116

5. Gill and Fisher, *op. cit.*, p. 102

6. *Ibid.*

7. Chaudhuri, S.B.: *Civil Rebellion in the Indian Mutinies 1857—1859*, (Calcutta, 1957), pp. 156-157

on a wide scale and destroyed the railway bridgeworks at the river Karmanasa.¹ On June 11, the British troops under Douglas burnt Gahmar and in the skirmishes that followed, the villagers openly sided with the Indian sepoy. But Amar Singh had left Gahmar previously with the principal part of his force in order to elude the pursuit of (Colonel) Cumberlege, who was at Zamania.² The whole district was now in the hands of the freedom fighters. Everything belonging to the government or to a European east of Zamania and Ghazipur had been plundered or destroyed including the government buildings. All the civil establishments were disrupted and several police officers killed. The freedom fighters had almost everywhere in the district gained the sympathy of the people. Saidpur was the only post retained by the British but this also was in uproar towards the end of June.³ But the British maintained their position in Saidpur by calling in a force from Varanasi which compelled the freedom fighters to move northward. But they returned to Saidpur and Cumberlege, who had also arrived there, could not check them effectively as wherever they went they found ready supporters.⁴ The punishment inflicted on some of the policemen who fell into the hands of the freedom fighters had so thoroughly unnerved the entire police that they could not discharge their duties. Along the Ganga, the British maintained order by a patrol of steamers and by destroying the boats of the freedom fighters at Bara.

The campaigns of Douglas in October, 1858, brought back the northern part of the district under British control, the tract south of the Ganga being held by the Indian sepoy. Zamania was the only post retained by the British but the overthrow of Amar Singh by Havelock enabled them to re-establish their authority in the entire district by the end of October.⁵ They finally removed the troops from the district in 1862 and from that time nothing worth mentioning occurred till the subdivision of Ballia was carved out of district Ghazipur and was formed into a separate district in 1879.⁶ In 1893, communal disturbances broke out in the district over the issue of cow slaughter but the situation was soon brought under control.

Twentieth Century History

In 1916 the district came into prominence as a centre of political activity when a branch of the Indian National Congress was established

1. *Ibid.*, pp. 249-250

2. *Ibid.*, p. 251

3. *Ibid.*, p. 157

4. Rizvi, S.A.A., *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, pp. 141-142

5. Nevill, H.R., *op. cit.*, p. 174

6. *Ibid.*, p. 175

by Shri Bhagwat Mishra (a local pleader) in the district with headquarters at Ghazipur city.¹

Home Rule Movement

In 1917, a branch of the home rule league founded in 1916 by Annie Besant, started functioning in the district. Under the joint auspices of this league and the district Congress committee, several meetings and processions were organised in Ghazipur (as elsewhere). Branches of the two organisations sprang up in various parts of the district and political activity reached a high pitch.²

Condemnation of Rowlatt Bill

In 1919, the people of the district united against the infamous Rowlatt Bill of 1919 which drastically curtailed the liberties of the people by giving the government unlimited powers to arrest people without a warrant and to detain them without a trial. The Bill gave rise to feelings of deep resentment and indignation and raised a storm of protest all over the district which found expression in closures and hartals.³

The brutal firing on April 13, 1919, by the military on a peaceful gathering at Jallianwala Bagh in Amritsar (Punjab) was strongly condemned in the district.

Khilafat and Non-Co-operation Movements

The Khilafat movement started with the non-co-operation movement in 1920 and received support from all sections of the people in the district. Mukhtar Ahmad Ansari of Yusufpur, Syed Mahmud of Bhitri in tahsil Saidpur and Swami Sahjanand of Dewa rose to eminence on the political scene of India and took an active interest in the affairs of their home district. They entrusted the task of propagating the non-co-operation movement to the local leaders, who did the organisational work in the district most enthusiastically and it was in appreciation of the work done by them that Jawaharlal Nehru with Sarojini Naidu paid a visit to Ghazipur in 1921 when a purse of Rs 15,000 was presented to him⁴ for Congress work. Such was the enthusiasm of the people for the movement that processions and meetings became a daily feature and government offices and liquor shops were picketed. Courts of law and government service were also boycotted and normal studies in educational institu-

1. Ghazipur District Records

2. *Ibid.*

3. *Ibid.*

4. *Ibid.*

tions were seriously disrupted as students left their classes to take part in meetings and processions. Alarmed at the mass support for the movement, the government applied Section 144 of the Criminal Procedure Code to the whole district.¹ But it could not suppress the dauntless spirit of the people, who exhibited their adherence to the Congress movement by sending batches of volunteers to court arrest in defiance of the prohibitory orders. Such arrests numbered hundreds which was a proof of the support the people of the district extended to the ideals of the Congress and its movement against the British.²

Mahatma Gandhi suspended the non-co-operation movement in 1922 after the Chauri Chaura incident which involved the loss of a few human lives. But the movement roused the consciousness of the masses against alien rule and gave them new confidence and courage to fight it. The people of the district now turned their attention to the propagation and use of khadi, development of cottage industries, Hindu-Muslim unity and the unity and solidarity of the whole nation.³

Simon Commission

In 1928, when the Simon Commission visited India, protest processions and demonstrations were organised in the district as elsewhere.⁴ Placards and banners with the words, "Simon, go back", were displayed and black flags waved. On October 2, 1929, Ghazipur was visited by Mahatma Gandhi. He was given a rousing reception by the people. He addressed a large audience at Ghazipur where he propagated the use of khadi.⁵

Civil Disobedience Movement

Mahatma Gandhi's famous Dandi march, undertaken on March 12, 1930, as a symbolic protest against the British government's policy of monopoly in the manufacture of salt, was the signal for the beginning of the civil disobedience movement in Ghazipur also.⁶ On April 25, 1930, about 50 volunteers from every corner of the district came to Ghazipur (town) and violated the Salt Law by manufacturing contraband salt. They were soon arrested but a fresh force of volunteers was raised to carry on the Congress programme. The women of the district also

1. *Ibid.*

2. *Ibid.*

3. *Ibid.*

4. *Ibid.*

5. 'Suman', Sri Ram Nath : *Uttar Pradesh men Gandhiji* (Hindi text published by the Information Department, U.P., Lucknow, 1969), p. 134

6. Ghazipur District Records

joined hands with the volunteers in picketing the shops selling British-made cloth. Shops selling liquor were sealed by the volunteers.¹

In 1931, the civil disobedience movement was temporarily suspended in view of the negotiations to be held at the round table conference in London. On its failure the civil disobedience movement was resumed in the district (as elsewhere) by holding protest meetings and picketing the shops selling foreign goods. In order to curb the movement, the government applied Section 144 of the Criminal Procedure Code and under it till May, 1932, more than 400 arrests were made in the district.

The district participated in the elections of 1936 which were conducted under the Government of India Act of 1935. Two seats in the Provincial Legislative Assembly were allotted to the district and both were won by Congress candidates.²

With the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939, the Congress ministry in the provinces resigned as the British government did not agree to the terms of the Indian National Congress that should India be assured of getting her Independence, the Country would co-operate in the war effort. The people started a campaign against the war-fund contributions and they held public meetings against the government's war effort.

In 1940-41, the campaign took the form of a satyagraha in which individual volunteers courted arrest.³

Quit India Movement

The Quit India movement, launched on August 9, 1942, was acclaimed widely by the people of the district. On August 10 the authorities issued warrants of arrest against 129 eminent leaders of the district, which sent the majority of the leaders underground. The people who had so far remained disciplined, having now lost the guidance of their leaders, rose up to defy the British government⁴ and rushed out to damage government buildings, railway stations and post-offices, etc. Some of the railway stations in the district were even taken possession of, telegraph wires were cut and telephone posts were uprooted. The tri-colour (the national flag) was hoisted almost on all thanas without much resistance⁵ but the thanadar of police-station Saadat closed the gates of the police-station. A mob of 4,000 to 5,000 headed by Sevanand Sadhu broke open

1. *Ibid.*

2. *Ibid.*

3. *Ibid.*

4. *Ibid.*

5. Ghazipur District Records; Chopra, P.N.: *Quit India Movement of 1942*, Published in the *Journal of Indian History*, Vol. XIX, (Trivandrum, 1971), p. 21

the gate and entered the compound. The station officer, Mirza Hamid-ullah, opened fire and made an effort to escape but he and his companion, a constable, were chased by the crowd and done to death, the police-station was set on fire and their dead bodies were thrown into it.¹ Later 17 persons were convicted in connection with this case and awarded severe punishments.²

On August 14, 1942, a mob gained possession of the Nandganj railway station. On hearing this Maize, the superintendent of police of the district, rushed to Nandganj and opened fire injuring hundreds and taking the lives of about 50 persons.³ On August 18 a group of people marched to take possession of tahsil Muhammadabad but when the processionists reached there, the tahsildar opened fire in which 8 persons were killed.⁴ The struggle continued and practically the whole of Ghazipur came under the control of the local people who ran the government for three days (from August 19 to August 21, 1942) upon which the military and the mounted police were called out by the government⁵ and a reign of terror was let loose in Ghazipur where village after village was pillaged, looted and burnt by these forces and such was the fear of the British officers (Marsh Smith, Nethersole and Hardy) who were put in charge of operations in this district, that as soon as the news of their arrival spread, the panicky villagers ran away to the fields and hid themselves there.⁶

The British continued their reprisals by firing on innocent persons. Houses were plundered and burnt, the inmates were attacked and a cruel thrashing or kicking was given to them. The use of khadi or wearing of the Gandhi cap was considered to be a crime. The government officers and officials were restored to their places under the protection of the military and they were left free to indulge in acts of violence against the people of the district including taking forced possession of their goods and valuables. The unarmed common people could do nothing but bear this ruthlessness patiently. False criminal cases were lodged against 100 innocent people and criminal assaults were made on women by military soldiers and police constables.⁷ More than 3,000 persons were arrested and tried in connection with the Quit India movement. About 150 persons were killed as a result of firing resorted to by the British government at 20 places in the district. Seventy-four villages were burnt

1. Chopra, P.N., *op. cit.*, p. 21

2. *Ibid.*

3. Ghazipur District Records

4. *Ibid.*

5. Chopra, P.N., *op. cit.*, p. 21

6. *Ibid.*, p. 24

7. Ghazipur District Records

and property worth about Rs 35 lakhs was looted by the officials. A collective fine amounting to Rs 4,50,000 was imposed on and realised from the people of the district.¹

The year 1945 marked the end of the Second World War. By this time British public opinion had veered round to granting complete independence to India.

On August 15, 1947, the Country and with it the district was liberated from alien rule. This August day has since been declared one of the three national days of the Country. The district celebrates Independence day every year in a befitting manner and there is rejoicing in every home. The national flag is hoisted on the collectorate building, on all government buildings and on private and other buildings as well. The Country had become free but before the people could fully enjoy the sense of liberation and victory, they awakened to find that a tragedy had accompanied freedom. The Congress and the Muslim League had accepted the principle of the partition of the Country. About 90 displaced persons from Pakistan came to the district and were rehabilitated there.

On hearing the news of the assassination of Mahatma Gandhi (on January 30, 1948), the whole district went into mourning, the markets, offices and other institutions were closed and several processions were taken out and meetings held to mourn the tragic and irreparable loss of the father of the nation. But he still lives in the memory of the people and is remembered on October 2, his birth anniversary which is celebrated as Gandhi Jayanti in the district as in other parts of the State and the Country. On this occasion meetings, discussions and discourses are organised all over the district to eulogise the contributions, achievements and sacrifice made by him for the people and the Country. On this day the people also take a pledge to serve the nation and to follow his way of life.

With the enactment and adoption of the Constitution of India on January 26, 1950, India became a sovereign democratic republic. The day was celebrated in the district by taking out processions, holding meetings and illuminating houses, shops and government buildings. This day is solemnly observed with enthusiasm every year all over the district as Republic Day.

The nation has always venerated those who had participated in the struggle for freedom. On the occasion of the celebration of the silver jubilee year of Independence (1973) 883 persons of the district who had taken part in India's freedom struggle or their dependents were awarded *tamra patras* (copper plates) placing on record the services rendered by them or their forbears.

1. : *Ibid.*

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

GROWTH OF POPULATION

The first attempt at the collection of some returns in respect of the number of houses in the district was made in 1847 but are not available. As they were defective (being limited to a mere enumeration of houses) their loss is of hardly any account. The next enumeration took place in 1853 but even this time it was not possible to determine the exact population as subsequently certain villages were transferred (to Ballia). Nevertheless by deducting the totals of the population of these villages, a close approximation was arrived at and thus computed the number of inhabitants stood at 9,95,717 persons with a density of 717 persons per square mile.

The rate of density ranged from 1,325 in pargana Ghazipur, which included that of the town of Ghazipur, to 541 in Mahaich ; it was well above the average in Muhammadabad and Dehma and below it in all the other parganas except Saidpur. The number of towns and villages is not ascertainable but the places with more than 5,000 inhabitants were Ghazipur, Reotipur, Gahmar, Sherpur, Bara, Saidpur and Bahadurganj. A decrease in population by 1,39,811 persons was noted at the census of 1865, when the population was found to be 8,55,906 persons with a density of 614.6 persons per sq. mile. This decrease was ascribed to the effects of the struggle of 1857 (in which there was loss of life) the famine of 1857 and the consequent violent outbreaks of cholera and other diseases which occurred about this time, resulting in extensive emigration from the district. At the census of 1872, the population numbered 8,32,625 persons with an average density of 601 persons. The reasons for the decrease were the emigration of males and a heavy mortality caused by sickness. The next census, that of 1881, showed a total of 9,63,189 persons, with the density of 688 persons to the sq. mile. At the enumeration of 1891, the population had risen to 10,24,753, giving a density of about 737.3 persons per sq. mile.

The decennial growth with the variation in population during the period 1901 to 1971 was as follows :

Year	No. of Persons	Decade variation	Percentage of decade variation
1901	8,57,830	—	—
1911	7,88,298	—69,532	—8.11
1921	7,81,333	— 6,965	—0.88
1931	8,24,721	+43,388	+5.55
1941	9,85,081	+1,60,360	+19.44
1951	11,40,932	+1,55,851	+15.82
1961	13,21,578	+1,80,646	+15.83
1971	15,31,654	+2,10,076	+15.90

The census of 1901, with the population standing at 8,57,830, showed that a marked decline (by 1,66,923 persons) had occurred since the last census due chiefly to emigration and the heavy death-rate of the period. The general average density was 656.9 to the sq. mile. In the decade 1901—1910, the recorded births hardly exceeded the deaths due to the ravages of plague which caused a decline in the population. Between 1921 and 1971, the population of the district registered an increase of 72.54 per cent, compared with which the increase in the population of the State during the corresponding period was 68.49 per cent. The maximum rate of growth in the district was 19.44 per cent during the decade 1931—41. But during the decade 1961—71, the increase in population was 15.90 per cent, which was much lower than the State average of 19.78 per cent.

In 1971, the population was 15,31,654 persons, of whom 7,74,616 were males and 7,57,038 females and in respect of population this district occupied the 30th position in the State. The area of the district was 3,381 sq. km. in 1971, the district thus taking the 50th place in the State in respect of population.

The density of population in the district in 1971 was 453 persons per sq. km., which was higher than the State average of 300 persons per sq. km. The most densely populated tahsil was Ghazipur, having 517 persons per sq. km. Next came tahsil Muhammadabad with 452 persons per sq. km., Saidpur with 447 persons per sq. km. and tahsil Zamania with the density of 411 persons per sq. km. The rural and urban density in the district was 436 with 2,693 persons per sq. km. respectively. The highest rural density of 460 persons was noted in tahsil Ghazipur,

the maximum urban density also being found there (3,324 persons per sq. km.). In 1961, the density of population in the district was 392 persons per sq. km., which was higher than the State average of 250 persons per sq. km. The tahsilwise density of population (persons per sq. km.) in 1961 was 429 in Ghazipur, 399 in Muhammadabad, 383 in Saidpur and 365 in Zamania. The rural and urban density of population was 381 with 2,343 persons per sq. km. respectively. The highest rural density of 399 persons per sq. km. and the highest urban density of 2,706 persons per sq. km. was found in the Muhammadabad and Ghazipur tahsils respectively.

The sex ratio of the district in 1971 was found to be 977 females per 1,000 males, which was higher than the State average of 879. The sex ratio in the rural and urban areas of the district was 982 and 877 respectively. The tahsilwise sex ratio in the district was 1,002 in the Saidpur, 980 in the Zamania, 959 in the Muhammadabad and 957 in the Ghazipur tahsils. The variation in sex ratio between 1901 and 1971, with the total number of males and females was as follows :

Year	Males	Females	Number of females Per 1,000 males
1901	4,17,926	4,39,904	1,053
1911	2,94,869	3,93,429	996
1921	3,99,042	3,82,291	958
1931	4,22,729	4,01,992	951
1941	4,99,624	4,85,457	972
1951	5,70,549	5,70,383	999
1961	6,54,246	6,67,332	1,020
1971	7,74,616	7,57,038	977

The distribution of population according to different age-groups, as in 1971, is indicated in the following table :

Distribution of Population According to Different Age-groups In 1971

Age-group	District population			Rural population			Urban population		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
0-14	6,54,007	3,50,944	3,03,063	6,24,465	3,35,416	2,89,049	29,542	15,528	14,014
15-19	1,21,238	61,320	59,918	1,14,596	57,577	57,019	6,642	3,743	2,899
20-24	1,08,647	43,784	64,863	1,03,160	40,873	62,287	5,487	2,911	2,576
25-29	1,24,870	52,824	72,046	1,19,974	50,382	69,592	4,896	2,442	2,454
30-39	1,68,099	86,792	81,307	1,59,930	82,496	77,434	3,169	4,296	3,873
40-49	1,29,390	61,712	67,678	1,23,424	58,478	64,946	5,966	3,234	2,732
50-59	1,01,837	51,667	50,170	97,978	49,448	48,530	3,859	2,219	1,640
60 and above	1,23,443	63,471	57,972	1,19,020	63,101	55,919	4,423	2,370	2,053
Age not stated	123	102	21	107	91	16	16	11	5
Total	15,31,654	7,74,616	7,57,038	14,62,654	7,37,862	7,24,792	69,000	36,754	32,246

Population by Tahsils

In 1971, the district had four tahsils—Saidpur, Ghazipur, Muhammadabad and Zamania, which included 858 uninhabited villages, 2,510 inhabited villages and 3 towns (as classified by the census of that year). The towns contained 4.50 per cent of the district population. The population of the towns and some other details are given below :

Name/category of town	Tahsil	No. of Persons	Male	Female
Saidpur (town area)	Saidpur	10,045	5,326	4,719
Ghazipur (municipal board)	Ghazipur	45,635	24,414	21,221
Muhammadabad (notified area)	Muhammadabad	13,320	7,014	6,306

The district contains 4 more town areas (rural), namely Sadat, Bahadurganj, Zamania and Dildarnagar-Fatehpur Bazar but they were not declared urban areas by the census, as they do not fulfil the urban conditions as laid down by the Census of India.

The tahsilwise break-up of the district population with the number of villages and towns, as in 1971, was as follows :

Tahsil	Villages		Towns	Population Persons	Percentage total population
	Inhabited	Uninhabited			
Saidpur	1,025	200	1	4,96,474	32.42
Ghazipur	504	123	1	3,48,657	22.76
Muhammabad	731	403	1	3,70,676	24.20
Zamania	250	132	-	3,15,847	20.62
Total	2,510	858	3	15,31,654	100.00

The rural and urban population and area in each tahsil in 1961 and 1971 are given in Statement A at the end of the chapter.

The extent of the population in 2,510 inhabited villages, as in 1971, was as follows :

Range of population	No. of inhabited villages	No. of persons	Male	Female	Percentage to rural population
Less than 200	821	76,433	38,768	37,665	5.23
200-499	804	2,66,736	1,35,562	1,31,174	18.24
500-999	519	3,67,255	1,85,402	1,81,853	25.11
1,000-1,999	256	3,59,674	1,80,888	1,78,786	24.59
2,000-4,999	95	2,64,619	1,32,469	1,32,150	18.09
5,000-9,999	10	62,487	31,470	31,017	4.27
10,000 and above	5	65,450	33,303	32,147	4.47
Total	2,510	14,62,654	7,37,862	7,24,792	100.00

From the foregoing particulars it is evident that about 95.5 per cent of the district population lived in the rural areas. Of the 2,510 inhabited villages, 1,625 were small, each having less than 500 inhabitants, medium size villages with a population varying between 500 and 2,000 numbering 775. The remaining 110 villages were large, each having more than 2,000 persons. About 50 per cent of the rural population of the district lived in medium size villages.

Immigration and Emigration

In 1961, among the people enumerated here, 92.2 per cent was born within the district, 5.9 per cent in other districts of the State, 1.8 per cent in other parts of the Country and 0.1 per cent in other countries. Among those from other countries 111 were from Pakistan, 80 from Burma, 48 from Nepal, 6 from the United States of America and 1 from the United Kingdom. Of the immigrants from other States and Union Territories, 21,245 persons (1,918 males and 19,327 females) were from Bihar, 184 (121 males and 63 females) from Punjab, 127 (105 males and 22 females) from Madhya Pradesh, 93 (44 males and 49 females) from Rajasthan and 41 (24 males and 17 females) from Delhi. The number of immigrants from other districts of the State was 78,126 (12,167 males and 65,959 females).

The number of emigrants from the district is not known but some Muslim families migrated to Pakistan at the time of the partition of the Country in 1947. Many people also went out in search of employment or in connection with trade or business or on account of marriage.

Displaced Persons

After 1947, about 217 displaced persons, particularly Hindus, Sikhs and Jains, mostly from Pakistan, came to this district. According to the census records of 1951, 7 such persons arrived in 1946 and 90 and 86 in 1947 and 1948 respectively, 27 and 3 in 1949 and 1950 respectively and 4 in 1951. Only 10 came from unstated countries and the remaining were from Pakistan.

Most of the displaced persons preferred to live in the urban areas of the district.

LANGUAGE

The common tongue of the people is Bhojpuri which is a dialect that is a direct descendant of the Prakrit of Magadha but has no literary pretensions and like its sister languages, Bihari and Maghai—is related to eastern Bengali, Assami and Oriya. It is commonly spoken in the eastern part of the district Hindi being spoken by about 92.9 per cent of the population. The other language of any importance is Urdu, which is spoken by about 7 per cent of the people. This Urdu is very different from that of Lucknow or Delhi (the well-known Urdu-speaking centres) and contains a liberal admixture of eastern Hindi. Hindustani is also spoken in the district but it is usually those persons who have gone to the district from western Uttar Pradesh or Punjab who speak Urdu and Hindustani. The number of persons who returned other languages as their mother-tongue was insignificant. The number of persons speaking different mother-tongues, as in 1961, was as follows :

Mother-tongue	No. of Persons	Males	Females
Hindi	12,29,415	6,10,530	6,18,885
Urdu	91,290	43,190	48,100
Bengali	301	199	102
Punjabi	230	110	120
Bhojpuri	228	162	66

Other languages spoken were Marathi, Arabic, Avadhi, Burmese, English, French, German, Gujarati, Malai, Malayalam, Marwari, Muria-

Hindi, Nepali, Oriya, Persian, Russian, Sanskrit, Sindhi, Tamil and Telegu, the number of persons speaking each being about 25.

Script

The Devanagiri script is used for Hindi and the Persian for Urdu, other languages generally using their own individual scripts.

RELIGION AND CASTE

The numbers of adherents of different religions in the district, as in 1971, were as follows :

Religion	Total Adherents		
	No. of persons	Male	Female
Hinduism	13,84,934	7,02,382	6,82,552
Islam	1,45,190	71,314	73,876
Sikhism	252	122	130
Christianity	1,263	791	472
Jainism	3	3	—
Budhism	12	4	■
Total	15,31,654	7,74,616	7,57,038

Thus the percentage of Hindus in the district was 90.42 per cent as against the State average of 83.76 per cent and there were 9.48 per cent Muslims as compared to the State average of 15.48 per cent. The remaining 0.1 per cent of the district population comprised Sikhs, Christians, Buddhists and Jains.

Principal Communities

Hindu—This major community was originally divided into four branches—Brahmana, Kshatriya, Vaish and Shudra but as time went on one more subdivision originated from the Shudras being called Achut or Antyaj (untouchable). This ancient division was mainly occupational but gradually it developed into a hereditary order. Now, due to the spread of education, and the impact of progressive social and economic forces, the old cast structure is slowly breaking up and it has started losing its rigidity.

The Brahmanas are evenly distributed throughout the district and a majority of them belongs to the Sarvaria, Kanaujia and Sakaldivipi

subdivisions. The Sarvaria are said to have been originally Kanaujia but to have changed their name to Sarjupari or Sarvaria on account of their settling down in the Country north of the Sarju or the Ghagra.

The Rajputs, who claim to be Kshatriyas, are numerous in the district. Their clans split up into a large number of subdivisions. Their important subdivisions represented here are the Dikhit, Gautam, Bai, Gaharwar, Surajbansi, Sikarwar, Chauhan, Bisen, Panwar, Sombansi, Chandel, Bachgoti, Parihar, Kankar, Donwar and Mahrar.

The Vaishs, who are also numerous here, are strongest in tahsil Ghazipur. Their important subdivisions represented here are the Kandu, Agarwal, Baranwal, Rauniar, Rastogi and Kesarwani. They are mainly traders and money-lenders by profession.

The Bhuinhars, who are well distributed here, are mainly confined to the Muhammadabad and Zamania tahsils. Their subdivisions are almost as numerous as those of the Rajputs but only a few are of much importance such as the Kinwar, Sikarwar, Donwar, Kastwar, Kaushik, Sunwar, Bharadhwaj, Dikhit, Bhrigbansi and Gautam. They are mainly cultivators.

The occupational groups like the Kori, Kahar, Kurmi, Ahir, Lunia, Gadariya, Sonar, Nai, Halwai, Khatik, Bhat and Mali, etc., which together form a small percentage of the Hindus, are spread over the whole district.

About 18 subdivisions of the Scheduled Castes are represented in the district. In 1971 they numbered 2,96,754 and formed nearly 19.37 per cent of the district population and about 21.4 per cent of the Hindus. They contribute to 19.76 per cent of the rural and 11.28 per cent of the urban population.

The persons belonging to the Scheduled Tribes numbered 582, forming about 0.04 per cent of the district population, only 10 of them residing in urban areas. The tahsilwise distribution of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, as in 1971, is given below :

District/Tahsil	Scheduled Castes			Scheduled Tribes		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
District						
Rural	2,88,971	1,49,176	1,39,795	572	283	289
Urban	7,783	4,029	3,754	10	6	4
Total	2,96,754	1,53,205	1,43,549	582	289	293

Continued

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Saidpur						
Rural	1,07,499	53,086	53,413	299	159	140
Urban	2,593	1,351	1,242	—	—	—
Total	1,10,092	54,437	55,655	299	159	140
Ghazipur						
Rural	64,740	32,364	32,376	47	16	31
Urban	3,797	1,970	1,827	10	6	4
Total	68,537	34,334	34,203	57	22	35
Muhammadabad						
Rural	67,498	34,910	32,588	75	37	38
Urban	1,393	708	685	—	—	—
Total	68,891	35,618	33,273	75	37	38
Zamania	49,234	28,816	20,418	151	71	80

Muslim—The majority of Muslims in the district belongs to the Sunni sect, the most numerous being the Julahas most of whom still support themselves by their traditional occupation of weaving. Akin to them are the Behnas or Dhunias, whose special avocation is cotton-carding. Next to the Julahas in number are the Sheikhs, who are strongest in the Ghazipur and Saidpur tahsils. Their important subdivisions are the Siddiqui, Qureshi, Usmani, Ansari, Faruqi and Abbasi.

The Pathans are found mainly in the Zamania tahsil, though considerable numbers reside in the Ghazipur and Muhammadabad tahsils. Many of them trace their origin to the Afghan settlers of the days of Aurangzeb. Their important subdivisions are the Yusufzai, Lodi, Khatak Bangash and Kakar, etc.

There are also many Rajput Muslims in the district and they are mainly confined to the Zamania and Muhammadabad tahsils. The conversion to Islam in the case of the Kinwar and Sikarwar clans is said to date from the time of Aurangzeb. In the case of other clans, such as the Gaharwar, Bhatti, Chauhan, Panwar and Donwar, the adoption of Islam very possibly took place at an earlier period, perhaps during the rule of the Lodi dynasty or during the reign of Akbar.

The Saiyids, who are the descendants of the earliest settlers in the district, are comparatively small in number, their chief subdivisions being the Husaini, Kazmi, Tirmizi, Sabzwari and Rizvi.

The remaining Muslim subdivisions, mostly occupational, are the Faqir, Darzi, Hajjam, Dhobi, Qassab, Churihar, Kunjra and Kalwar.

Christian—In 1971 the number of persons in this Community was 1,263 (791 males and 472 females) and 858 resided in the rural areas. They constituted 0.08 per cent of the district population.

Sikh—In 1971, there were 252 Sikhs in the district (122 males), 169 of whom were residing in the urban areas.

Religious Beliefs and Practices

Of Hindus—Hinduism (here as elsewhere) is a collection of diverse beliefs, doctrines and practices ranging from polytheism to absolute monism and the identification of the *atman* (individual soul) with *paramatman* (divine essence). One of the outstanding tenets of Hindu religious belief is the transmigration of the soul or rebirth after death according to one's action in life. Hinduism includes the worship of a pantheon of gods and goddesses in their various aspects, the chief being Shiva, Vishnu, Krishna, Rama, Sita, Hanuman, Surya, Lakshmi, Ganesh and Durga, etc. Temples dedicated to different deities are normal centres of religious congregation and worship. Some people also have a separate place for puja in their houses as well. Fasts are observed on various week-days or according to the dates of the lunar month and on important festivals like Nav-Durga, Ram Navmi, Shivaratri, etc. Discourses and recitations from religious books like the *Gita*, *Srimad Bhagvata* and *Ramayana* and collective singing of devotional hymns (*kirtan*) are also sometimes arranged privately or publicly. The illiterate and more backward sections of the community also believe in various superstitions and supernatural elements, etc.

There are two pilgrim centres in the district, Chochakpur and Zamania. A temple of Mauni Baba is situated on the banks of the Ganga in Chochakpur where a large number of devotees assembles on the days of Kartiki Purnima and makes offerings to the deity. An *ashram* of Jamdagni Rishi is situated at Zamania, where people worship and make offerings on the occasion of Kartiki Purnima and Makar Sankranti.

Arya Samajists, who are monotheists and repudiate idol worship and rituals, are numerous here. The followers of this religious sect do not worship in temples and generally perform *sandhya* (prayers). Some of the staunch followers of this institution also perform *havan* daily.

Islam—The Muslims of the district believe (as elsewhere) that there is one God, Allah and follow the principles laid down by their prophet, Muhammad. Islam enjoins five duties upon its followers—the recitation of the *kalma* (an expression of faith in God and the prophet Muhammad); the offering of *namaz* (prayer) five times a day (preferably in mosques individually or in congregation) Fajr, Zuhar, Asr, Maghrib and Isha; Roza fasting in the month of Ramadan; hajj to Mecca; and

the giving of *zakat* (contributions in cash or kind for charitable purposes). Their holy book is the *Quran* and one who memorises it is called a *hafiz*.

Most of the Muslims of the district offer *namaz* regularly and are also very particular about the *namaz* of Friday. On important festivals like Id-ul-Fitr and Id-uz-Zuha, most of them offer the *namaz* collectively at *idgahs*. The sacrifice of sheep and goats is also a common feature on the occasion of Id-uz-Zuha. The Muslims also venerate *pirs* (saints) and hold *urs* celebrations in their honour. The *milad* celebrations to commemorate the birth of their prophet in the month of Rabi-ul-Awwal, are also arranged in the district with great rejoicing, when religious discourses highlighting the teachings of Islam are arranged.

Sikhism—Sikhism is a monotheistic religion, which disavows idolatry and has no cast distinction. This religion enjoins on its believers the wearing of a *kanghi* (comb), a *kara* (iron bangle), a *kirpan* (dagger), a *kachha* (short drawers) and prohibits the cutting of *kesh* (hair). Sikhs attend congregational prayers at *gurdwaras* (places of worship). The *Grantha*, is their holy book, consisting of words recited by their preachers and teachers (gurus). They celebrate the birth anniversaries of their gurus, when the *Grantha* is taken out in procession. They also perform collective marriages in the *gurdwara*. In summer they offer people sweet drinks and water free of charge on special occasions.

Christianity—Christians believe in one God, his only son, Jesus Christ, the Holy Spirit, the resurrection of the dead and everlasting life. The *Bible* is their holy book and congregational services are held in churches or chapels, particularly on Sundays.

Buddhism—As elsewhere, Buddhists believe in the eightfold middle path of righteousness : *satya vichar* (right views), *satya vishvas* (right belief), *satya bhasan* (right speech), *satya karma* (right conduct), *satya nirvah* (right living), *satya prityana* (right efforts), *satya dhyana* (right meditation) and *satya bhas* (right-mindedness). This path leads to the end of sorrow and to the attainment of peace, enlightenment and nirvana.

Jainism—Jains believe in the *triratna* (three gems)—right faith, right knowledge and right conduct—which leads to the path of *moksha* (liberation) and in *ahimsa* (the duty of sparing animal life ; non-violence). According to their belief, the universe has had no beginning and will have no end and no creator is necessary to explain the cosmic phenomena. They worship in temples where the images of their *tirthankaras* or Jinas are installed.

Festivals and Fairs

Hindu—The Hindus of the district celebrate almost all the important Hindu festivals, which are spread over the whole year. The series of

festivals commences with Sheetla Ashtami, which falls on the 8th day of the dark fortnight of the first month of the Hindu calendar, Chaitra, when the goddess Sheetla is worshipped. On the 9th day of the bright half of the same month is celebrated the festival of Ram Navmi, the birthday of Rama, when devotees observe a fast till midday, decorate the temples of Rama and worship his idols. The *Ramayana* and the *Ramcharitramanasa* are read and devotional music and discourses, etc., are also arranged. The Ganga or Jeth Dasahra falls on the 10th of the latter half of Jyaishta and is celebrated as a bathing festival. Nag Panchami falls on the 5th day of the bright half of Sravana, when the Nagas (serpent gods) are worshipped by offerings of milk, flowers and rice. On Raksha Bandhan, which falls on the 15th day of the bright half of the same month, a *rakhi* (thread symbolising protection) is tied by a sister round the wrist of her brother and Brahmanas invoke protection for the families they serve as priests by tying a coloured cotton thread round the wrists of the members of the family. Janmashtami is observed on the 8th day of the dark half of Bhadra to commemorate the birth of Krishna. The 15th day of Asvina in the Pitra Visarjan Amavasya, when the manes are propitiated. The worship of Durga continues for nine days (Nav Ratri) during the bright half of Asvina, the 9th day being Durga Navmi. Dasahra or Vijaya Dashmi, which is dedicated to the worship of the goddess Vijaya and also commemorates the victory of Rama over Ravana, falls on the next day. Ram Lila celebrations are held all over the district. Deepavali falls on the last day of the dark fortnight of Kartika but festivities start two days earlier with Dhan Teras. On the main day of Deepavali every Hindu house is illuminated and Lakshmi, the goddess of wealth, is worshipped. The day after Deepavali is Govardhan and then Chitragupta or Dawait Puja and then Bhaiya Dooj, when women put a *roli* mark (tika) on the foreheads of their brothers. Gopasthmi is celebrated on the 8th day of the bright half of that month, when the cow is worshipped. A big bathing festival is organised on Kartiki Purnamashi, the full moon day of Kartika, when people take a bath in a river. Makar Sankranti, which falls in the month of Magha, coincides with the transit of the sun from Dhanu to Makara and is celebrated as a bathing festival. Vasanta Panchami, which falls in the latter fortnight of Magha, is devoted to the worship of Saraswati, the goddess of learning. Shivaratri is celebrated in honour of Siva's wedding and falls on the 13th day of the dark half of Phalguna. A fast is observed and the temples of Siva are specially decorated. For the Arya Samajists, Shivaratri is a memorable day because Dayananda, son of a devotee of Siva and the founder of the Arya Samaj, got enlightenment on this night. They celebrate the week preceding this day as *Rishi-bodha-saptah* and arrange discourses by learned scholars for seven days. Holi, the festival which heralds the coming of spring,

is the concluding festival of the Hindu year and falls on the last day of Phalguna, when bonfires are lighted on cross-roads at a fixed time to commemorate the annihilation of the ill-will, malice and evil forces of the previous year represented by the demon god's sister, Holika. Ears of barley are roasted in these bonfires as offerings to the gods. An interesting feature of this festival is the squirting of coloured water and the throwing of coloured powder (*abir* and *gula*) on friends and relatives—indeed on any one within reach, in a spirit of gaiety. On this occasion people exchange greetings by visiting the houses of friends and relations. People in the villages sing *phaags* accompanied with the *dholak* (a type of drum).

About 32 fairs, big and small, are held annually in the district. Most of the festivals are accompanied by local fairs as well. Of these, the Dhanush Yagya fair held at village Katghara in the Saidpur tahsil, Ram Lila fair at Saidpur, Kartiki Purnima fair at villages Chochakpur, Suapur and Chima and the Ram Navmi fair at Karimuddinpur are locally important and each is attended by about 10,000 to 40,000 persons. The Govind Dashmi fair held at Jafarpur (tahsil Saidpur), Trimohini fair at Jalapur (tahsil Ghazipur) and the Goril Baba fair at Rajapur (tahsil Muhammadabad) are also prominent.

Muslim—The Muslims celebrate almost all their important festivals but the number is limited. The important ones are described briefly below :

The first ten days of the month of Muharram are devoted to the perpetuation of the martyrdom of Imam Husain, the grandson of the prophet of Islam and his companions on the battle field of Karbala and are observed as a period of mourning. On Ashra, the last of the ten days and the most important one, when Imam Husain was killed, *tazias* are taken out in procession for burial at *karbalas*. Chehellum, on the 20th of Safar and falling on the 40th day from Ashra, usually marks the end of the mourning period. On the 12th day of the month of Rabi-ul-Awwal is Barawafat, which marks the birthday of the prophet Muhammad, when alms are distributed and discourses on his life and mission are held. Shab-e-barat, the 14th day of Shaban, is a festival of rejoicing of the Shias and marks the birth of their last Imam. It is celebrated by displays of fireworks, distribution of sweets and *fatiha* (prayers) for the peace of departed souls. Ramadan is the month of fasting when nearly all Muslims fast during the day time. Islam enjoins on its followers that this time be spent in prayer and meditation. The period of fasting expires with the appearance of the new moon, the day after which is celebrated as Id-ul-Fitr (which falls on the first of Shawwal) and *namaz* is said in *idgahs* and mosques and gifts and greetings are exchanged. Id-uz-Zuha (also known as Bakr-id), their last festival, is celebrated on the 10th of Zilhij, to co-

memorate the prophet Ibrahim's offer to sacrifice his son, Ismail, to God. On this occasion Muslims offer their *namaz* in *idgahs* and mosques and sacrifice sheep and goats in the name of God. A typical feature of these two festivals is the eating of preparations made of vermicelli.

Among their fairs, the Muharram fair is held on the 10th day of Muharram at village Ghazipur (Bisheshwarganj) of tahsil Ghazipur, in memory of Imam Husain and is attended by about 10,000 persons. Another fair, the Sheikh Samman-ka-Mela, is held on the 8th of Ramadan at village Naisara of tahsil Saidpur (about 5 km. from Nandganj railway station) and is attended by about 5,000 persons.

Sikh—The important festivals of the Sikhs are the birthdays of Guru Nanak and Gurn Govind Singh, when processions are taken out, congregational prayers are held in *gurdwaras* and extracts from the *Grantha* are recited. Their other festivals are Baisakhi Purnima and Lohari. A fair, the Guru Parva, is held at village Badhopur of tahsil Ghazipur (about 8 km. from the Badhopur bus station) and is attended by about 2,000 persons. Local fairs are also held at *gurdwaras*.

Christian—The important festivals of the Christians are Christmas, falling on December 25, which marks the birthday of Jesus Christ. On Christmas eve scenes of the nativity of Christ are enacted and cribs are set up in some churches which people flock to see. On Christmas day people attend services in churches, exchange gifts and hold various types of festivities. Good Friday, which commemorates his crucifixion and Easter, which always falls on a Sunday (either in March or April) and is celebrated in memory of his resurrection, are observed with solemnity and reverence.

Jain—The Jains celebrate the birth and nirvana anniversaries of the last *tirthankara*, Mahavira, the former on the 13th day of the bright half of Chaitra and the latter on Deepavali day.

Buddhist—The important festival of the Buddhists is Buddha Purnima which is celebrated on the last day of Vaisakha and marks the birthday as well as the nirvana of Buddha.

A list of some important fairs is given in Statement B at the end of the chapter.

SOCIAL LIFE

Property and Inheritance

The succession to and inheritance of property, other than agricultural holdings, amongst the Hindus, Sikhs, Jains and Buddhists is governed by the Hindu Succession Act, 1956, which confers equal rights on sons

and daughters in paternal property. But such property can also be distributed through wills or gifts and the sons who live with their parents and look after the property, generally reap the advantage as more often than not the parents make their wills in their favour, the daughters, who on their marriage are supposed to become the members of other families, being ignored. Here, as elsewhere, the transfer of property through gifts is not common, as it involves much financial expense (in court fees, etc.) and legal complications. Devolution of agricultural property follows the provisions of the U. P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1950, which is applicable to Hindus as well as Muslims. In respect of other civil property, the Muslims are governed by their personal law of succession and inheritance and the Christians by the Indian Succession Act, 1925.

The joint family and co-parcenary systems are still in existence but they are disintegrating under the impact of new social and economic forces and the growing individualistic outlook of the younger generation. The pattern of family life in the district is patriarchal and women are mostly dependent on their menfolk for maintenance and protection and only a few are economically independent and earn their own living.

Marriage and Morals

The distribution of the population according to marital status (or otherwise), as in 1971, was as follows :

Marital status or otherwise	No. of Persons	Male	Female
Unmarried	6,57,666	3,78,565	2,79,101
Married	7,82,520	3,61,208	4,21,312
Widowed	90,461	34,058	56,403
Divorced or separated	985	775	210
Unspecified status	22	10	12
Total	15,31,654	7,74,616	7,57,038

As widowed females numbered 56,403, widow marriage does not appear to be popular in the district. The number of married males and females under 15 years of age was 20,033 and 25,912 respectively, indicating that in spite of the law, early marriages are still prevalent here, particularly in the case of girls. The people are, by and large, monogamous, although polygamy is not unknown.

Hindus—Marriage is a sacrament among the Hindus and is governed by the *Dharma Shashtra* and to some extent by custom, which is now changing with the times. Some variations in the performance of marriage rites may occur from caste to caste or even from family to family but the ceremonies of *Kanyadan* (giving away the bride) and *bhanwar* (or *saptpadi*, literally seven steps taken round the sacred fire) are essential. The marriage is performed at the bride's place where the bridegroom and his party (*Barat*) go on the appointed day. After the *vida* or leave-taking, the bride and bridegroom (and his party) go to the bridegroom's place. Inter-caste marriages are rare and unpopular but inter-subcaste marriages are becoming less rare. After the passing of the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, certain past restrictions like the prohibition of marriage between persons of same *gotra* have been done away with. This Act makes polygamy illegal and invalidates marriage between *sapindas* (agnates within seven generations on the paternal and five generations on the maternal sides) and also fixes the minimum marital age at 18 years for the man and 15 years for the girl. If the is below 18 years, the consent of the guardian is necessary. The marriage customs among the Hindus in the district are more or less similar to those in other parts of the State and elsewhere in the Country.

Among the Hindus divorce or separation, though permissible by law, is not considered advisable or good. So generally married partners continue to live together. A son is also considered a necessity in order to propitiate the elders and continue the line.

Of Muslims—With the Muslims, marriage is a civil contract. Their religion permits polygamy to the extent of four wives at one time but a Muslim who is in government service can not have more than one living wife. The proposal comes from the bridegroom's side and after the settlement of the marriage the *mangni* (engagement) takes place. The *mehr* (dower), an amount payable by the husband to his wife in case of divorce by the husband, is always fixed before the ceremony takes place and can be paid either at the time of the marriage or later. Marriages are usually negotiated and settled by the parents of the boy and girl. On the appointed day, the *barat* (marriage party) assembles at the bride's house and after her *vakil* (usually an elderly relative) has obtained the consent of the bride and the bridegroom in the presence of witnesses to contracting the marriage. The *qazi* then reads the *khutbah* and the *nikah* or *aqad* (marriage) is over. Among the Shias a *maulvi* from each side participates in performing the marriage instead of the *qazi*. Then the *rukhsat* (leave-taking) takes place and the bride goes away with the bridegroom to his place.

Of Christians—Marriages among Christians are governed by the Indian Christian Marriage Act, 1872, as amended in 1952. The marriage customs of the adherents of different denominations in the district usually

follow the same general pattern as elsewhere. Marriages may be arranged by the concerned parties or by their relatives. After the engagement, the banns are published three times, once every week, by the priest of the church where the marriage is to be solemnised, to give an opportunity for raising objections, if any. The marriage is performed on the date fixed, by the priest in church. The essential parts of the ceremony are the giving away of the bride by the father (or other relative or friend), the taking of the marriage vows by the bride and the bridegroom, the placing of a ring by the bridegroom on the third finger of the bride's left hand (sometimes the two exchange rings), the pronouncement of the couple as husband and wife by the priest and the signing of the marriage register by the couple and their witnesses. Wedding festivities then usually follow at the bride's home.

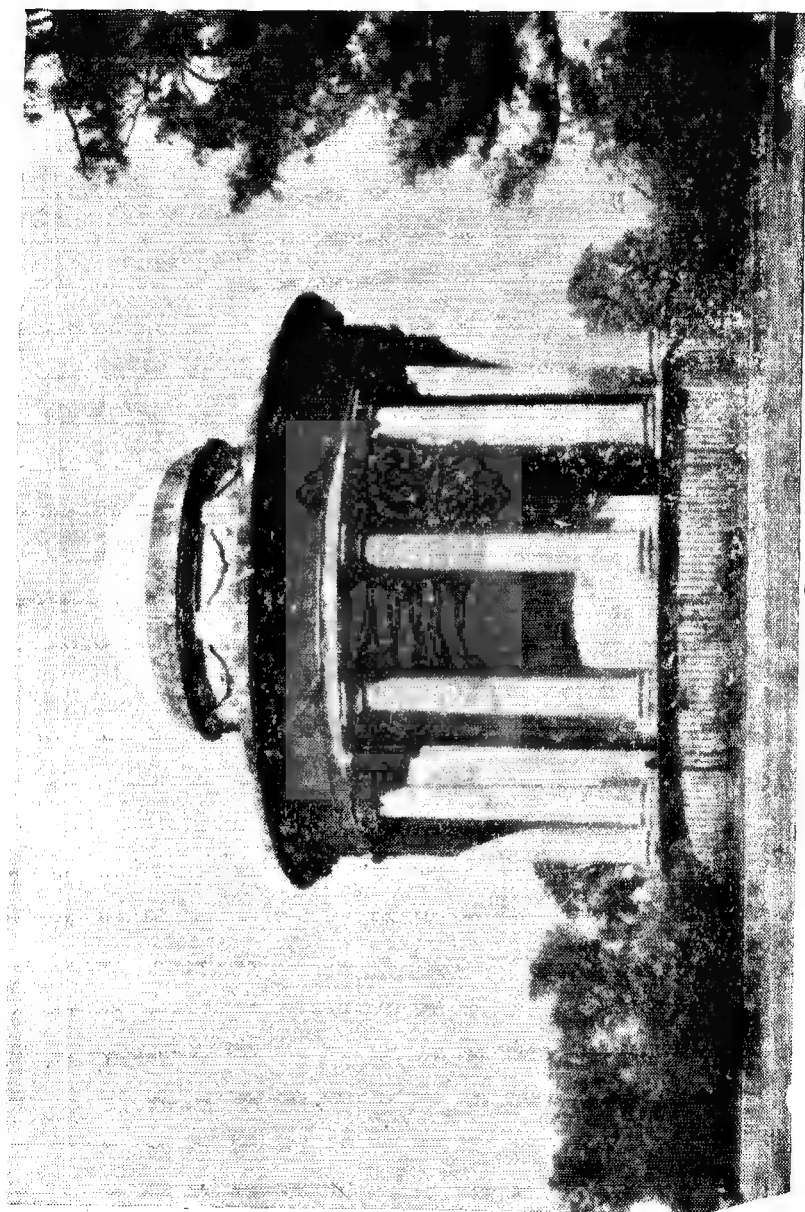
Of Sikhs—The important ceremonies in a Sikh marriage are the recitation of extracts from the *Granth* and going round the holy book several times by the couple. The bridegroom and his party go in a *barat* (marriage procession) to the bride's house and after offerings have been made at the *gurdwara*, the marriage festivities take place at the bride's place.

Dowry—For the removal of this evil the government has enacted the Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961, which prohibits the giving and taking of dowry. In spite of this, the dowry system still persists here (as elsewhere) among Hindus as among other communities. The dowry, which is a burden on the bride's parents, is generally settled before the performance of the marriage and can be in cash as well as in kind.

Civil Marriage—The Special Marriage Act, 1954, provides for the marriage of parties belonging to any religion which have to be performed and registered by a marriage officer appointed by government for the purpose. No formal rites or ceremonies are required.

The number of civil marriages performed in the district from 1971 to 1975 is given below:

Year	No. of civil marriages performed
1971	■
1972	■
1973	3
1974	9
1975	6



Lord Cornwallis memorial, Gazipur



**Inscription in the central part of Lord
Cornwallis memorial, Ghazipur**



सत्यमेव जयते



Opium Factory, Ghazipur

Widow Marriage—Despite the enabling provisions of the Hindu Widow Marriage Act, 1956, the marriage of Hindu widows (particularly in the upper strata of society) is not common in the district as neither custom nor public opinion views such a course with favour. The members of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes adhere to their old custom of allowing a widow to marry the husband's brother, generally the younger one. Among Muslims and Christians such marriages have always been permitted.

Divorce—The dissolution of marriage by law or by custom was not permissible among the Hindus but among the Scheduled Castes and some of the Other Backward Classes, it was allowed with the sanction of the caste panchayat. With the enactment of the Hindu Marriage Act, 1935, the facility of divorce and dissolution of marriage has become available in special circumstances, to all sections of Hindu society.

The personal law of the Muslims allows husbands to divorce their wives on making payment of the *mehr* but the Dissolution of Marriages Act, 1939, also empowers the wife to seek divorce from her husband.

The divorce among Christians is governed by the Indian Divorce Act, 1869.

The tendency of seeking divorce in the district is not extensive and generally married couples continue to live with each other. From 1970 to 1974, the number of persons applying to the court for a divorce was 17 (13 men and 4 women) and it was allowed in 8 instances.

Prostitution and Immoral Traffic in Women—No organised prostitution centres or brothels are said to exist now in the district which is perhaps the result of the enforcement of the Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls' Act, 1956. Formerly there were many prostitutes and dancing girls plying their trade in the district.

Gambling—The Public Gambling Act, 1867, as amended from time to time, declared gambling to be an offence punishable under the law. The evil does not seem to have assumed a serious form here. People usually gamble during the Deepavali festival. A few people also run private gambling houses.

Home Life

In 1971, this district contained 598 houseless persons, of whom 348 were males and 250 females and of the total 415 were residing in the rural and 183 in the urban areas. The tahsilwise break-up of this section was 191 in the Saidpur, 192 in the Ghazipur, 131 in the Muhammadabad and 84 in the Zamania tahsils. The institutional population then numbered 2,567 persons (2,176 males and 391 females) of whom 1,690 were residing in the rural and 877 in the urban areas. Their tahsilwise distribution was

573 in the Saidpur, 990 in the Ghazipur, 276 in the Muhammadabad and 728 in the Zamania tahsils. There were 2,09,036 occupied residential houses in the district, of which 1,99,372 were in the rural and 9,664 in the urban areas. Their tahsilwise distribution was 69,513 in the Saidpur, 47,091 in the Ghazipur, 50,039 in the Muhammadabad and 42,393 in the Zamania tahsils.

In 1971 the district contained 2,30,135 census households (group of persons ordinarily living together and having a common kitchen) of which 2,19,365 were in the rural and 10,770 in the urban areas. The average size of a household in the district was 7.01 persons and in the rural and urban areas it was 7.03 and 6.64 persons respectively. The average density of persons per room in the district was 1.96 persons and in the rural and urban areas it was 1.95 and 2.09 persons respectively. In the district people in the majority of households (97.9 per cent) were found to be residing in their own houses and only 2.1 per cent in rented houses. In the rural areas the persons in 98.9 per cent households were residing in their own houses and 1.1 per cent in rented houses and in the urban areas people in 77.2 per cent households were living in their own houses and the remaining 22.8 per cent in rented ones. The statement given at the end of the chapter gives the number and classification of households by their size and tenure status.

Houses in Cities—Houses in cities do not follow any set architectural style. About 54 per cent of the houses in the urban areas are pakka and the remaining 46 per cent are kutcha and are generally occupied by the poorer sections of the population. Houses generally do not have any architectural decoration to speak of. Big houses generally occupied by rich persons have a drawing room, dining room, bed rooms, kitchen, store-room, bathrooms and lavatories, etc., but such accommodation is not available to everyone. The open space in the middle of a house (the *angan*) and a latrine are to be found in nearly every house but separate urinals have not been provided in the majority of houses. In some places public latrines have also been constructed for those whose houses do not have latrines. The houses are usually badly ventilated and the drainage is far from satisfactory.

Houses in Villages—In the rural areas most of the dwellings are kutcha and are single storeyed and are built of mud or unbaked bricks. They are roofed by wooden beams and are covered with planks, thatching grass or tiles. The percentage of pakka houses in the rural areas is very small. In *khadir* areas, where floods are common, the houses are generally made of thatching grass and are more like huts. Rural houses generally contain spacious *gheras* and big *angans* but a separate kitchen and gardens, etc., are rare. Latrines do not exist in most of the houses

and the fields are used for the purpose. Ventilation, better drainage, improved cattle sheds, etc., are now to be found in those villages where people have begun to take an interest in community development schemes.

Dress—The influence of dress worn in urban areas has brought about some change in the sartorial style of people living in the villages. Traditional costumes are gradually disappearing yielding place to modern garments sometimes made of synthetic fabrics. Formal dress includes the sherwani (a knee-length coat) and trousers or *pyjama*. The bush coat or shirt and trouser or a *pyjama* are commonly worn by nearly everyone. In the villages are still seen older men with the turban (*pugree* or *saafa*) but this has been more or less discarded. Men prefer to go bare-headed or wear the Gandhi cap. Shoes form an essential item of dress and very few people are seen going bare footed.

Ornaments—Men in the district sometimes wear a gold or silver ring on their finger and a chain around the neck. Women generally wear *churis* (bangles) made of glass, silver or gold, finger rings, necklaces and chains, nose-rings or nose-studs, ear rings, *payal* (anklets), *bichua* (toe rings—meant only for married women), waist girdles and the like. The poor people usually go in for silver and the rich for gold ornaments and jewellery (often studded with precious stones). The love for heavy jewellery is on the decline partly due to the high price of gold and silver, a change in taste and fear of robbery and loss.

Food—Wheat constitutes the staple food of the people, the other grains commonly consumed here being gram, jowar, *bajra* and rice. Chupaties made of wheat or corn flour are generally eaten with pulses which here are *urd*, *moong*, *arhar*, *chana* and *masur*. Two major meals a day are taken, breakfast consisting of a glass of milk, whey or tea and a chupati or so. Gur and sugar are the chief sweetening agents. Among edible fats, Vanaspati (dehydrogenated oil) and mustard oils are more commonly used. The tea-drinking habit has entered many households and many people are becoming accustomed to drinking it once or twice a day.

COMMUNAL LIFE

Amusements and Recreations—Among the rural folk, telling of stories and legends and singing are common. Performances like *nataks* and *nautanki*, *bhajan mandalies*, recitations from the *Ramayana* and the *Bhagwat*, *kathas* (religious stories) and *mushairas* and *kavi sammelans* etc., organised by various units are also arranged. People still take an interest in dances and performances by monkeys and bears and in *kathputli* (m Marionette) shows. The fairs organised in the district also serve the purpose of entertainment for the village folk as they include the arrangement of *dan-gals*, *nautanki*, drama, folk dances and other amusements. Among comm-

unal dances, the Phari, a speciality of the Ahir community, is organised with the beating of the *nagara* at the time of marriages. Where Ahirs are more numerous, the Birha songs is very common. During the rainy season, the battle songs of Alha and Udal, the romantic Banaphar heroes of the 12th century, are sung by professional singers, who are generally of the Nut community. In urban areas visits to the cinema provide a cheap passtime. In 1975, there were 3 picture houses in the district, 2 in Ghazipur (town) and one in Dildarnagar. Another source of cheap recreation is the radio which is to be found in many homes and in both villages and towns. In 1974, there were 11,892 radio sets in the district. The district also has recreational clubs, public libraries and reading rooms which are also a source of recreation.

Common among the games, etc., people here indulge in are *kabaddi*, *gagona*, *gulli-danda*, *kho-kho*, kite flying and wrestling, etc. Modern games generally played in schools, colleges and clubs are hockey, cricket, basketball, foot-ball, volley-ball, badminton, table-tennis and tennis, etc. Annual sports and games meets are also organised at the district level. The district has a stadium (the Nehru stadium) in Ghazipur town.

Impact of Zamindari Abolition on Social Life

The U. P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1950, which came into operation in the district in 1952, brought about many significant changes in the social and economic life of the peasants. The rural elite, which consisted mainly of zamindars who had been exploiting the tillers of the land for several centuries were replaced by a community of progressive farmers owning their own land, cultivating it with ardour and often adopting modern methods of agriculture. Not only has the per capita availability of farm produce increased but the general prosperity of the people has improved manifesting itself in the adoption of a slightly higher standard of living, better food, dress, dwellings, etc. New educational institutions are coming up rapidly through voluntary effort to combat the forces of ignorance and superstition which had impeded the all-round growth of those in the rural areas.

New Trends

The winds of change are blowing all around under the impact of the Five-year Plans. The pattern in dress, ornaments, social customs, food, their mode of living, religious beliefs and practices and other habits of the people have undergone noticeable transformation. The impact of the cinema is far-reaching but not always healthy. With the diversification of occupations and spread of education, social barriers are gradually breaking down and the rigidity and rigours of the caste system have disappeared to a large extent. As a result, cases of inter-caste and inter-

provincial marriages have increased and the entire society has become sociable except in a few cases where untouchability persists, particularly in the rural areas. Where the social legislation for abolition of untouchability has not made any serious impact. The extension of general and technical education has opened up new vistas of employment on account of the schemes of the Five-year Plans. Women have begun to take their place with men. By and large the people have become politically conscious and take interest in the elections whether of panchayats, State legislature or Parliament. With the increase in the agricultural production and prices, the purchasing power of agriculturists has increased with the result that they spend lavishly on their religious and social customs. With the introduction of the Panchayati Raj the farmers have acquired political power through the right of franchise both at the State and the district levels.



STATEMENT—A
Area and Population

Reference Page No. III

District and Tahsil	Area (Sq. km.)		Population					
	1971	1961	1971			1961		
			Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
District								
Total	3,381.0	3,371.2	15,31,654	7,74,616	7,57,038	13,21,578	6,54,246	6,67,332
Rural	3,355.4	3,351.9	14,62,654	7,37,862	7,24,792	12,76,424	6,30,506	6,45,918
Urban	25.6	19.3	69,000	36,754	32,246	45,154	23,740	21,414
Saidpur (tahsil)								
Total	1,110.3	1,110.4	4,96,474	2,47,965	2,48,509	4,25,357	2,08,274	2,17,083
Rural	1,104.8	1,104.8	4,86,429	2,42,639	2,43,790	4,17,350	2,04,115	2,13,235
Urban	5.5	5.6	10,045	5,326	4,719	8,007	4,159	3,848
Ghazipur (tahsil)								
Total	672.9	672.9	3,48,657	1,78,079	1,70,578	2,88,702	1,44,213	1,44,489
Rural	659.2	659.2	3,03,022	1,53,665	1,49,357	2,51,555	1,24,632	1,26,923
Urban	13.7	13.7	45,635	24,414	21,221	37,147	19,581	17,566
Muhammabad (tahsil)								
Total	819.2	819.2	3,70,676	1,89,126	1,81,550	3,26,844	1,63,223	1,63,621
Rural	812.8	819.2	3,57,356	1,82,112	1,75,244	3,26,844	1,63,223	1,63,621
Urban	6.4	—	13,320	7,014	6,306	—	—	—
Zamania (tahsil)								
Total	768.7	768.7	3,15,847	1,59,446	1,56,401	2,80,675	1,38,536	1,42,139
Rural	768.7	768.7	3,15,847	1,59,446	1,56,401	2,80,675	1,38,536	1,42,139
Urban	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

1. There has been no jurisdictional change in the district during the decade. The difference in area figures is due to the revised calculation done by the board of revenue. There is no change in the area recorded by the Central statistical organisation in 1971

STATEMENT—B

Fairs

Name of Village/Town	Name of fairs	Month and date of fair	Approximate attendance
1	2	3	4
TAHSIL SAIDPUR			
Saidpur	Ram Navmi	Chaitra <i>sukla</i> 9	3,000
Nandganj	Cattle fair	Jyaistha <i>sukla</i> 10	10,000
Jakhania Govind	Ram Lila	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	5,000
Saidpur	Ram Lila	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	20,000
Jalalabad	Ram Lila	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	5,000
Gorkha	Dhanush Yagya	Agrahayana <i>sukla</i> 5	5,000
Kannanmai Arazi Mafi	Dhanush Yagya	Agrahayana <i>sukla</i> 5	5,000
Kaighara	Dhanush Yagya	Agrahayana <i>sukla</i> 5	40,000
TAHSIL GHAZIPURI			
Sunarghat	Rathyatra	September 1	5,000
Lanka	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	15,000
Palia	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	3,000
Chochakpur	Kartika Purnima	Kartika <i>sukla</i> 15	15,000
Suapur	Kartika Purnima	Kartika <i>sukla</i> 15	10,000
Chima	Kartika Purnima	Kartika <i>sukla</i> 15	10,000
TAHSIL MUHAMMADABAD			
Karimuddinpur	Ram Navmi	Chaitra <i>sukla</i> 9	10,000
Kanuwan	Nag Panchami	Shravana <i>sukla</i> 5	3,000
Shahbaz Kuli	Tirmohini	Bhadra <i>sukla</i> 12	5,000
Muhammadabad	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	4,000
Balapur	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	4,000
Parsa	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	5,000
Rajapur	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	3,000
Mania urf Sakla Khurd	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	4,000
Qasimabad	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	3,000
TAHSIL ZAMANIA			
Reotipur	Ram Navmi	Chaitra <i>sukla</i> 9	5,000
Dildarnagar	Cattle fair	Vaisakha <i>krishna</i> 13	4,000
Dildarnagar	Cattle fair	Jyaistha <i>sukla</i> 7	4,000
Dildarnagar	Cattle fair	Kartika <i>sukla</i> 15	4,000
Dildarnagar	Cattle fair	Phalgun <i>krishna</i> 13	4,000
Sherpur	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	4,000
Reotipur	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	3,000
Dildarnagar	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	10,000
Gahmar	Dasahra	Asvina <i>sukla</i> 10	4,000
Lahuwar	Dhanush Yagya	Agrahayana <i>sukla</i> 5	5,000
Sahwal	Dhanush Yagya	Agrahayana <i>sukla</i> 5	3,000
Zamania	Makar Sankranti	January 14	6,000
Gahmar	Makar Sankranti	January 14	8,000

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

LAND RECLAMATION AND UTILISATION

Cultivated Area

On the whole the district is a fertile plain and has had a long history of agricultural development. No survey of the area under cultivation was made till the permanent settlement of 1795 but the defect was remedied in 1840 at the first revision of records when the net area under cultivation was something like 5,64,146 acres or 63.9 per cent of the entire district, the figures not being absolutely accurate on account of several subsequent transfers of individual villages.

The survey of 1879 showed substantial progress in the increase in such land with the figure standing at 2,46,010 ha. or 68.15 per cent of the whole area. In 1885-86 and 1887 the average was 2,45,466 ha., the decline continuing and the lowest point being reached in 1896-97 when only 2,25,980 ha. were under the plough. But after that the recovery was steady and in 1901-02 the average area under tillage was 2,39,439 ha. From 1902-03 to 1906-07 it rose to 2,49,762 ha. showing an appreciable standard of development, being equivalent to 69.04 per cent of the entire area of the district.

The cultivated area in the district in the years 1951-52 and 1961-62 was 2,58,785 and 2,60,378 ha. respectively (the percentage of the total area for each year being 76.7 and 77.4 respectively) and 2,71,874 ha. (the percentage being 81.6) for 1971-72.

Culturable Land

Forest land, groves, fallows, waste lands like pastures and grazing grounds and land generally classified as unculturable due to sand or *reh* (alkaline soil), ravine scouring or overgrowth of dhak and other pernicious vegetation, constitute the culturable land of the district. Some idea of the extent of this type of land may be had from the following figures :

Year	Culturable land (in ha.)
1951-52	41,093
1961-62	38,793
1970-71	25,413

In 1970-71, such land included 8,553 ha. under groves, 9,709 ha. of culturable waste, 814 ha. of pasture and fallow land measuring 6,337 ha. Barren and *usar* land constituted 8,380 ha. and the total area of the land put to non-agricultural uses such as that under water, roads, graveyards, etc., accounted for 27,527 ha.

Precarious Tracts

There are few parts in the district which can be classed as really precarious. In the black soil country a failure of rains causes loss of the *kharif* crops as irrigation is not possible. Throughout the district an early cessation of the rains means a restriction of the *rabi* area and probably the loss of the late rice. Floods as a rule do little real damage but a flood late in the season may cause the loss of the ungarnered *kharif* and a poor spring harvest to follow. The danger of waterlogging is negligible, though a series of wet years harms *reh*-infected soils of the northern depressions. The continuance of damp weather in the spring brings with it rust which adversely affects the wheat lands of the Gangetic alluvium.

In 1964 the government took up a scheme for the reclamation of *usar* lands in the Ghazipur, Saidpur and Muhammadabad tahsils and by 1968, when the scheme was discontinued, more than 567 ha. of *usar* were reclaimed.

The total area of land in the district which is affected by soil erosion is about 66,000 ha. which mainly falls in the Saidpur, Deokali, Ghazipur, Karanda, Manihari and Muhammadabad development blocks. Beginnings of soil conservation work were made in 1960-61 by the taking up of a dry-farming scheme in the district. In 1963-64, a full-fledged soil conservation programme was launched and a unit for the purpose was established at Ghazipur. Two projects, the Sohwal and Dewal Surha, were wound up by 1963-64 after a total of 890 ha. of land had been covered under them. Under the soil conservation programme (taken up from 1963-64) various operations like bunding, levelling, construction of outlets in the fields, contour cultivation, cultivation of cover crops and construction of check dams and diversion bunds have been implemented. From 1963-64 to 1974-75, the total area of land in the district covered by soil conservation measures was 28,800 ha.

IRRIGATION

In the alluvial tract, which comprises about two-thirds of Karanda, one-third of Zamania, one-fourth of Muhammadabad and small portions of several other parganas, irrigation is not required as a rule, owing to

the moisture inherent in the soil and the high water level. In these parts the construction of wells is usually impossible, as the alluvial deposit is comparatively shallow and beneath it lies a stratum of pure river sand. Generally speaking, the proportion of irrigation to cultivation is remarkably high. On an average nearly two-thirds of the total *rabi* area receives irrigation in ordinary years.

There were no canals in the district till the fifties of the present century. In the First Plan period (1951-52 to 1955-56) a small pump canal scheme on the river Tons near Ramgarh in the Muhammadabad tahsil was completed. It has channels of a length of nearly 9 km. and commands an area of about 3,000 ha. As is usual in the doab, the topography and abundance of subsoil water have been found to be very favourable for the construction of tube-wells in the district (both State run and privately constructed) through financial help from the government.

Numerous streams and nullahs existing in the district have been sources of irrigation since time immemorial through hand-operated water lifting devices like the *beri* or *dugla* (swing-baskets). In the last two decades the government has completed a number of mechanically operated lift-irrigation schemes. Wells, (the forerunners of modern tube-wells) constitute the most important source of irrigation in the district.

The statement given below shows the gross extent of the irrigated area in the district in 1951-52, 1961-62 and 1970-71 :

Year	Gross irrigated area (in ha.)	Percentage of gross cropped area
1951-52	87,865	28.2
1961-62	99,730	30.4
1970-71	1,20,644	34.4

Means of Irrigation

The figures in the statement below show the extent of the area irrigated from wells (including tube-wells), canals and other sources in 1951-52, 1961-62 and 1970-71 :

Year	Area irrigated from wells (including tube-wells) (in ha.)	Area irrigated from canals (in ha.)	Area irrigated from other sources (in ha.)
1951-52	80,653	—	5,930
1961-62	76,000	9,983	11,550
1970-71	91,853	9,683	5,734

The old type of well is now losing its worth. Formerly wells (both pakka and kutchra) worked by bullocks, *dhenkli* or *charkhi*, were a common sight in the countryside. Kutchra wells seldom last for more than a year, falling in during the ensuing monsoon except in rare instances where they are sunk in very firm clay or an underlying bed of *kankar* has been bored. In most places it is necessary to strengthen the sides by a lining of *arhar* stalks which are formed into a rude cable coiled round the inside of the well to prevent the earth from being washed away. Occasionally these cables, which are locally known as *binr*, are replaced by a framework of stiff bamboo closely interwoven and built up inside the well. The pakka (masonry or half-masonry) wells have a shaft of brickwork set in mud. They have, as a rule, no masonry superstructure, the shaft being built up about a metre above the level of the surrounding fields.

Formerly kutchra wells were fairly numerous but their uneconomic nature has led to an increase in the number of pakka wells in recent years. In 1951-52 there were 19,917 pakka and, 1852 kutchra wells in the district but in 1961-62 the number of the latter came down to 441, the number of pakka wells then being 16,880.

Since the fifties of the present century, tube-wells have given a more economic bias to the irrigation system. In addition to taking up a programme of constructing tube-wells, the government also gives financial assistance to the cultivators, commercial banks, co-operative institutions and other quasi-government financial corporations for installing pumping sets and persian wheels. There were in all 524 State tube-wells in the district in 1975, of which 450 were in running order and provided irrigation to an area of 31,030 ha. Of all the tahsils, Ghazipur has the largest number of such tube-wells.

Small private irrigation works (generally classified under the minor irrigation works programme) have been started in the district since 1951 and by October, 1975, the pakka wells constructed numbered 13,526, wells bored 17,593, Persian wheels (*rahats*) installed 2,626, pumping sets commissioned 1,032 and private tube-wells operated 8,716. An irrigation potential of more than 90,000 ha. has been created in the district through these sources.

Canals—An extensive net work of canals does not exist in the district except for a small pump canal on the river Tons which provides irrigation to an insignificant area of 3,000 ha. in tahsil Muhammadabad.

Another canal project, named the Deokali pump canal scheme, was launched in 1973-74. It envisages the having of a pumping station at

Saidpur on the Ganga and the construction of the Deokali canal of a length of about 40 km. Distributary channels totalling a length of 600 km. will also be constructed to provide irrigation to an area of 80,000 ha. in the Ghazipur, Muhammadabad and Saidpur tahsils. It has been estimated that a sum of Rs 1,657 lakhs will be spent on the scheme till its completion in 1978.

AGRICULTURE INCLUDING HORTICULTURE

Soils and Land

The soils and the general topography of the district depend directly on the drainage. The northern uplands, which comprise all the country north of the Ganga, with the exception of parts of Saidpur and Ghazipur and the greater portion of Muhammadabad, for the most part resemble the ordinary uplands of the Gangetic plain. On the higher levels sand preponderates and as the ground slopes inland from the banks of the streams, the soil becomes a good fertile loam, usually of a somewhat light character and in the depressions this merges into a stiff clay which turns into *usar* wherever saturation has occurred and is suited mainly for the cultivation of rice. The light sandy soil is generally known as *balua*, the loam as *doras* (corresponding to the *dumat* of other parts) and the clay as *matiyar*. There are several recognised subdivisions of these soils, especially in the case of clay, which ranges from the stiff brown loam known as *matiyar* proper to the hard grey *dhankar* which, as its name implies, is fitted only for the cultivation of rice and is so tenacious that it can only be worked when well soaked, while in the dry weather it hardens into an iron consistency. This soil is often infested with the saline efflorescence called *reh* which frequently occurs in the low country between the Mangai and the Bhainsahi, an undue proportion of these salts rendering the land wholly sterile as is the case in the wide expanses of barren *usar*. In most parts of the upland too there is a large amount of *kankar* in the subsoil and this in places crops out on the surface, resulting in a gritty, unfertile soil of little agricultural value. This *kankar* is not without its advantages, not only from a commercial point of view, as it is used as road metal but also because it affords a firm foundation for wells, the construction of which is consequently practicable in almost every part of the uplands. The alluvial lowlands, generally known as *tari* in contradistinction to the *uparwar* or uplands, comprise a small portion of the Saidpur and Ghazipur parganas, almost the whole of Karanda and the greater part of Muhammadabad from the Ganga to the road from Ghazipur to Ballia. South of the Ganga the alluvial area includes a narrow strip in Mahaich and about half of Zamania. Here the soil is of a different nature, varying from pure river sand on the banks of the Ganga to the fine loam deposits left by the river on the

newer formations and the characteristic *karail*, a dark variety closely corresponding to the *mar* of Bundelkhand. There are two extensive *karail* tracts, one in Muhammadabad, where it embraces all the land from the Korantadih and Ballia roads on the south to the banks of the Mangai on the north, stretching westward to within three km. of Muhammadabad itself; and the other in the centre of Zamania forming a rude triangle with the angles at Nagsar, Sohwal and Karahia. The formation is thus confined to tracts which are liable to inundation by the Ganga when in flood. The soil contains much alumina and when wet becomes very soft so that it is almost impossible to traverse it during the rains. It is so rich that it requires neither manure nor much labour and produces a spring crop without irrigation after a normal rainy season, owing to its remarkable power of retaining moisture and even the absence of winter rains does not affect it adversely. *Karail* when dry becomes exceedingly hard, splitting into huge cracks in which condition ploughing sowing and irrigation are impossible as the water sinks too rapidly through the cracks into the sandy subsoil. A great improvement can be effected by spreading sand on the surface, though the process is very laborious. Only a portion of the lowlands is regularly inundated. The lowest levels comprising the sandy deposits adjacent to the river produce nothing but thatching grass but where there is a bed of clay within nearly a metre of the surface, melons are grown in holes bored down to the firm stratum and their cultivation is very extensive and profitable. Where silt has been deposited by a sluggish current, hot weather rice is grown or wheat or oats are sown broadcast after the end of the rains, the operation (which is both difficult and dangerous) being entrusted to boys who sprinkle the seed as they crawl over the semi-fluid mud. In the intermediate levels, which are liable to annual inundations, only spring crops are grown, the higher parts bearing many other crops except rice. An unusually heavy flood may cause the loss of the *kharif* but it leads to a fine spring harvest. These higher levels are the most fertile parts of the district and in the spring barley and wheat may be seen stretching for miles along the river. There is no irrigation in the lowlands as a rule, as the underlying stratum of sand renders the construction of wells impracticable. A few localities are more favoured owing to the presence of layers of stiff clay at the proper depth, the largest tract of this type being the area between the road from Ghazipur to Zamania and the branch line of the railway to Dildarnagar.

The uplands south of the Ganga resemble the Chandauli tahsil of Varanasi. There is considerable unevenness in both the nature and quality of the soil. The central portion of Zamania has the ordinary loam and clay soils like those of the northern uplands but south of the railway line there is a stretch of fertile *karail* extending to the Karamnasa from the Varanasi boundary on the west to the village of Dewal (in

Ghazipur district) on the east. This tract resembles that in the lowlands but though equally fertile it is somewhat more precarious owing to the absence of irrigation and the uncertainty of the Karamnasa floods.

Cultivation

The system and methods of husbandry as practised in this district do not generally differ materially from those in vogue in the surrounding districts. As is everywhere the case, the better cultivators, such as the Kurmis and Koeris, pay far more attention to their fields than other cultivators, particularly those of the (so called) higher castes. The implements of cultivation are the same as those employed in the State except for certain improved types and innovations effected in recent years. Farmers are becoming more manure and fertilizer minded. The old and traditional habit of using cow dung as fuel is being gradually replaced by making compost of it. The district was one of the foremost indigo producing areas of the State till the close of the last century after which this product virtually disappeared from the district and with it the refuse from the indigo factories which made a very valuable manure for the fields.

In 1927, a district agriculture association was formed and in 1931 was established the Moss agricultural institute to impart to the cultivators theoretical as well as practical training in agriculture, running of co-operative institutions, rural education, economics, village administration, cottage industries, sanitation, first-aid, scouting, etc. It had its own building and an attached farm of 24 ha. which was after some time taken over by the State agriculture department. From 1950 onwards, with large-scale increase in the irrigation facilities made available through the State tube-wells and numerous minor irrigation works (detailed under the subject 'irrigation') considerable progress in the farming pattern has been achieved, particularly in the extension of the double-cropped (*dofasli*) area and also in the crops themselves, the more valuable and high-yielding staples having largely taken the place of the indigenous varieties that previously constituted the principal produce in the district.

Harvests

The agricultural year is divided into 3 parts named after the 3 harvests which go by the usual names of *kharif*, *rabi* and *zaid*. The last is of not much importance and consists of cucurbits, vegetables, spices, legumes and many low-grade cereals such as early millets locally known as *chena* which covered 1,118 ha. in 1970-71. Melons, *kakri* and cucumber are mostly grown in the *tari* or *karail* areas along the rivers especially in the Karanda, Zamania and Ghazipur parganas along the Ganga. The *kharif* crops are sown in Asadha-Sravana (June-July) and reaped in Kuar-Kartika (September-October) after the cessation of the rains, usually well before

the preparation of the fields for the *rabi* sowings which begin in Kartika-Agrahayana (October-November) and are harvested in Chaitra-Vaisakha-Jyestha (March-April-May). The relative figures of the area covered by the *kharif*, *rabi* and *dofasli* crops in the district in 1951-52, 1961-62 and 1970-71, are given below :

Year	Area under <i>Kharif</i> (in ha.)	Area under <i>rabi</i> (in ha.)	Area under <i>dofasli</i> (in ha.)
1951-52	1,76,410	1,33,725	52,460
1961-62	1,73,050	1,54,550	67,265
1970-71	1,99,562	1,50,940	79,747

Principal Crops

Kharif—Rice and millets like *bajra*, jowar and maize among the cereals and sugar-cane (a non-food crop) are the important *kharif* harvests in the district. Of the pulses, *urd*, *moong* and *moth* are noticeable though the area occupied by them is not very large.

The following statement gives some details about the main *kharif* crops in the district in 1972-73 :

<i>Kharif</i> crops	Area sown (in ha.)	Total production (in tonnes)	Average yield per ha. in district (in quintals)	Average yield per ha. in State (in quin- tals)
Rice	86,658	49,400	5.70	7.48
<i>Bajra</i>	15,324	9,020	5.89	6.63
Jowar	5,993	4,230	7.06	7.19
Maize	2,800	2,007	7.17	9.15
Pulses- <i>urd</i> , <i>moong</i> and <i>moth</i>	233	84	3.0	3.6

Rabi—Barley, which was the main *rabi* staple in the district at the close of the last century, still takes the lead. Wheat, which was not a favourite crop then, covering only a few thousand acres, has been showing an increasing trend in recent years, particularly in the last decade or so because of the better irrigation facilities offered by tube-wells. Barley and wheat are sown alone as well as mixed with each other and with

gram, pea or mustard which are also important *rabi* cereals. Of the pulses only *arhar* and *masur* are important. An interesting feature regarding *arhar* is that it is sown with *kharif* crops and harvested after most of the *rabi* crops have been collected. This is perhaps why it is hardly ever sown as a single crop, being usually combined with *bajra* or jowar which are harvested by November, leaving it standing alone in the field.

The following statement gives some relevant particulars about the *rabi* crops produced in the district in 1972 :

Rabi crops	Area sown (in ha.)	Total produc- tion (in tonnes)	Average yield per ha. in district (in quintals)	Average yield per ha. in state (in quintals)
Barley	52,149	62,989	12.08	10.09
Wheat	38,495	41,772	10.85	12.25
Gram	27,727	18,709	6.75	7.61
Pea	15,772	7,341	4.65	6.20
<i>Arhar</i>	18,810	14,096	7.49	15.40
<i>Masur</i>	4,910	2,222	4.5	6.23

Non-food Crops

Sugar-cane, oil-seeds (such as ground-nut, mustard, sesame, rape-seed and linseed) opium, vegetables, fruits and tobacco are main non-food crops in the district. Of these sugar-cane and opium are the most important. Indigo and tobacco were flourishing cash crops in the district till the closing years of the last century but are not produced now. Though vegetables occupy a small area and are grown chiefly in the neighbourhood of towns and in large villages, they constitute a valuable crop. Potato is one of the important vegetables grown and covers the largest area of all vegetables. A special feature of the district is its rose cultivation, the rose gardens being in immediate proximity to the town of Ghazipur. The Koeries are specialists in the cultivation of roses and the rose gardens of Ghazipur are celebrated. The flowers are used locally for making *itr* (scent) and rose-water by the perfumers and are also exported to Varanasi and Jaunpur. Another characteristic product of Ghazipur is opium which is widely produced here. There is a government opium factory at Ghazipur which manufactures refined opium and sells it for medicinal purposes. In British times the government exported opium to China from this factory.

Parts of the district, where a light sandy loam or alluvial or heavier soils exist and where there are facilities of irrigation, are best suited to the cultivation, of the poppy (papaver) from the pod of which the juice is extrated that yields the drug.

The statement given below provides some relevant facts about the important cash (non-food) crops raised in the district in 1972-73 :

Crops	Area sown (in ha.)	Total produc- tion (in tonnes)	Average yield per ha. in district (in quintals)	Average yield per ha. in State (in quintals)
Sugar-cane	15,506	6,39,784	412.60	433.70
Oil-seeds (mustard, sesame, rape- seed and linseed,	543	194	3.0	5.38
Ground-nut	45	41	9.10	9.10
Tobacco	7	8	11.43	9.76
Potato	2,838	26,953	94.97	93.14

Improvement of Agriculture

Seed Supply—The most common high-yielding varieties of seeds of cereals are Exotic paddy and millets, U.P. and hybrid maize, mexican and U.P. wheat and hybrid *bajra*. Seeds are supplied by the government through the seed stores of the agriculture department and the *pradeshik* co-operative federation. There were 69 seed stores in the district in 1974-75 of which 36 belonged to the agriculture department and the rest to co-operative institutions. The seed stores are able to meet only a small proportion of the total demand of the farmers, the bulk being supplied by the local dealers who obtain the seeds from the national seed corporation and the tarai seed development corporation, Pantnagar, and other agencies or through mutual exchange. The government farms at Barabag in Ghazipur, Ankuspur in Karnada and Tisaura in the Zamania development blocks are also engaged in the production of improved seeds and their sale to the farmers.

Soil Nutrients—The traditional manures are cattle dung, farm refuse and stable litter. The usefulness of green manure crops like *sana*, *lobla* and *moong* is now realised by the farmers. The use of chemical fertilizers especially phosphatic, potassic and nitrogenous, is also becoming popular among the cultivators. The total quantity of chemical fertilizers distributed to the cultivators in 1972-73 was 7,856 tonnes. Loans

for the purchase of fertilizers and agricultural implements amounting to Rs 36,36,120 and Rs 8,43,258 were also given by the agriculture department in 1972-73 and 1973-74 respectively. The co-operative institutions provided a total loan of Rs 80,00,000 for the same purpose in 1972-73 and 1973-74.

Rotation of Crops and Mixed Cropping—The practice of leaving the fields fallow for at least one season is now being abandoned as the system of rotation and mixed cropping are proving more productive. The common rotations in the district are paddy-wheat; *bajra*-wheat-barley; *bajra*-gram-pea-masur; paddy-wheat; *moong*-*urd*-*arhar*-sugar-cane; paddy-*toria*-potato-onion; maize-potato-onion; and ground-nut-wheat or barley.

So far as multiple or mixed cropping is concerned, leguminous crops like *lobia*, *moong* and *urd* with cereal crops yield nitrogenous matter to the soil and the standing cereal crops are also benefited. Almost always *arhar* is mixed with jowar, *urd*, til or *bajra* with *urd* or *arhar*; wheat with gram, barley, pea or mustard; and maize with *urd*. Potato is sown mixed with *methi* (fenugreek) or onion, sugar-cane with *moong* and rainy season vegetables and late paddy with coriander or fenugreek. In 1970, the district had a total area of about 80,000 ha. under multiple cropping.

Agricultural Co-operatives—The practice of joint cultivation of land (*sajha*) is very old. Other forms of co-operation in agricultural operations have also been common among the cultivators.

Of late statutory co-operative societies have been established in the villages for farming, distribution of seeds, loans, fertilizers, implements, marketing of agricultural produce, etc. In 1974-75, there were 33 such seed stores, 4 marketing societies (one each at Jangipur, Yusufpur, Saidpur and Zamania), the district co-operative bank and the co-operative federation at the district headquarters, the U.P. co-operative land development bank at each of the tahsil headquarters and a large number of credit societies scattered throughout the district. These institutions provide various kinds of loans for agricultural development. A sum of Rs 3,06,38,404 was distributed as loans by these institutions from 1970 to 1974. The nationalised commercial banks also provided loans worth Rs 1,13,33,229 in the same period for agricultural purposes.

Horticulture

Artificial groves are a prominent feature of the landscape in almost every part of the district, the only exceptions being the treeless *karail* tracts, stretches of low rice land and *usar* in the north.

The total area of groves and orchards was 8,553 ha. in 1970-71. The groves consist of mango, guava, papaya, banana, *ber*, *jamun*, *mahua*, jack

fruit and tamarind trees. The horticultural needs of the district are met from the government garden at Varanasi. The government extension training centre at Ghazipur has a small nursery which also supplies seedlings of fruit plants and vegetables. Fruit plants and seedlings numbering 51,819 and 88 kg. of vegetable seeds and in addition 49,890 quintals of potato seeds were distributed by the government in the district in 1974-75.

Agricultural Diseases and Pests

On an average the district loses 15 to 20 per cent of its agricultural produce every year due to the depredations of various pests such as insects, birds and animals (such as the nilgai, stray cattle, jackals, rodents and rabbits). Of these insects are the most destructive. They include white ants, aphids, grasshoppers, pyrrilla, white fly, caterpillars and *gujia*. Plant diseases like rust, smut, blight and canker are harmful to wheat, barley, jowar, paddy, *bajra*, potatoes, gram, *arhar*, fruits, vegetables, tomatoes and chillies. A number of weeds also cause damage to the crops. They are doob, *bathua* and *chaulai*. Weeding and interculturing are the usual methods adopted by the cultivators to destroy them. For looking after the health of the flora of the district there is a plant protection officer at the block headquarters with a fully equipped plant protection centre and there is one such centre at each of the development block headquarters. Spraying and dusting of insecticides and pesticides are carried out by these centres. The following statement gives an idea of the work done by the plant protection centres in the district in 1974-75 :

Work done	Area (in ha.)
Seed treatment	45,043
Eradication of rats	33,135
Control of insects and pests	12,003
Eradication of weeds	6,527
Intensive crop protection	3,70,044
Training of farmers in plant protection work	5,846

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY AND FISHERIES

The domestic animals of Ghazipur are generally of an inferior type as there are no recognised local breeds and no extensive pasture lands. Cattle breeding is left to chance and the so-called Brahmani bulls. Better animals are obtained from Makanpur, Ballia and Bihar. The important cattle fairs in the district are held at Dulahpur, Hathia, Ramgarh, Dildarnagar and Nandganj. Horse breeding was tried in 1816 but proved a failure and in 1873 the stud farm was closed down. The climate of the

district was not found suitable and grazing was too scanty for successful horse breeding. According to the live-stock census, 1972, the live-stock population of the district was as follows :

Live-stock	Number
Cattle (cows and bulls)	4,49,218
Buffaloes (male and female)	1,33,899
Goats	1,07,044
Sheep	61,785
Pigs	11,769

Sheep and goats are generally reared by herdsmen for their flesh and skins. Wool, obtained from sheep locally, is used for making coarse blankets. Bulls, male buffaloes, ponies, donkeys and mules are the main beasts of burden as well as draught animals.

Development of Live-stock

Considerable progress has been made in recent years in improving the breed of cattle through selective breeding, culling undesirable animals, up-grading the quality of indigenous cattle by crossing with improved bulls of well-known and tried Indian breeds, distribution of seeds of improved fodder crops and sale of cattle feed at moderate prices. Artificial insemination service for breeding cows and buffaloes was started in the district in the First Plan period (1951-52 to 1955-56) and there were 17 centres and 36 subcentres in the district for this purpose in 1974-75. In addition there were two intensive cattle development schemes being carried out at Ghazipur and Muhammadabad, running with another 12 artificial insemination centres. The total number of cows and she-buffaloes provided with service at these centres was 96,280 from the inception of the programme till 1974. Loans are also given by the government to the cultivators for purchasing cows and buffaloes of improved stock. An amount of Rs 54,650 was distributed for this purpose in the district up to 1974. The number of male cattle of poor stock which were castrated in the district in the last two decades was 3,15,930. A total of 234 cow bulls and 60 buffalo bulls were also distributed for breed-improving purpose. A small dairy was started by the government at the regional extension training centre, Ghazipur, in 1950. It had 13 Shahiwal cows in 1974 which yielded nearly 16,000 litres of milk in that year. Another dairy is being run by the degree college at Ghazipur since 1963 which had 25 cows of the Tharparkar, Kam Swiss, Jersey and Red Dane breeds. The total milk yield was 11,102 litres in 1974.

For sheep development, a sheep and wool extension centre with 50 pedigree rams has been established at Qasimabad. Wool is purchased

direct by the government from the sheep owners in the district and exported to Mirzapur and Varanasi (Bhadohi) for making carpets. For the purpose of improving the breed of goats, 19 bucks of the Jamunapari and Barbari breeds were stationed at the government veterinary hospitals and 23 such bucks were given away to goat breeders at subsidised rates.

Government has also taken up a pig development programme in the district under which one boar each of pedigree stock was kept in stock at the two intensive cattle development blocks at Ghazipur and Muhammadabad in 1974, with the aim of up-grading the indigenous stock.

Poultry Development

Poultry farming is rapidly gaining ground with the increasing demand for animal protein. In 1972, there were 1,12,561 poultry in the district of which 1,09,307 were hens and cocks, 2,669 ducks and drakes and 585 other birds. To encourage poultry farming as a subsidiary industry in the rural areas, the government supplies birds of improved breeds. There was one government poultry extension centre at Ghazipur in 1974, which had 400 layers. Chicks of different age groups are reared and distributed to poultry farmers. The total number of birds distributed by the extension centre in 1974-75 was 16,834. There were also 86 private poultry farms in the district which had a total of 3,200 birds in that year.

Cattle Diseases and Treatment

The common cattle diseases are rinderpest (*pokna*), malignant sore throat (*galaghontu*), black-quarter (*padsuja*), anthrax (*tilsuja*), dysentery (*pechis*) and foot-and-mouth disease (*khurha*).

A live-stock officer is in charge of the animal husbandry department in the district. There were 22 veterinary hospitals and 25 stockman centres in the district in 1975. During the last two decades the total number of animals treated at the veterinary dispensaries and stockman centres was 19,87,155 and those that were vaccinated 24,07,953.

Housing and Feeding

Domestic cattle are generally housed in thatched and kutcha sheds, pakka and well-ventilated byres with roof of iron or asbestos sheets being seen only in the government farms and farms owned by bigger cultivators.

Grazing facilities for cattle are available in the waste lands, groves and harvested or fallow fields. They are also allowed to graze within the precincts of the railway track under stipulated conditions. In 1970-71, the total area covered by culturable waste lands, pastures and fallow lands was 16,860 ha. Barren, *usar* and unculturable land measured 8,380 ha. The crops which provide good cattle fodder are maize, jowar, *bajra*,

barseem, lobia, and guar. The husk and dried and crushed stalks of wheat barley, *arhar, urd, moong, gram, peas and paddy* are also used by the farmers to feed the cattle.

FISHERIES

The fish which abound in the Ganga and other rivers are the *nain, bhakur, rohu, karounch, parhan, gonch, tengur* and *singhi*. They are caught at all seasons of the year, though mainly during the hot weather, the rainy season (except in times of high flood) also being favourable for fishing operations. The principal implements used for the purpose are nets of varying size and mesh, the rod and line and the *korhel*, a conical apparatus of network on a bamboo frame which is hauled upstream. There are few professional fishermen in the district but large numbers of Mallahs, Kahars and Pasis resort to fishing as a subsidiary form of employment. The government has taken up piscicultural development work in the district since 1951. Fingerlings are supplied by the government to private pisciculturists and *gaon* panchayats at concessional rates. The total number of fingerlings supplied by the government fish nurseries at Gorabazar and Ranza from 1966-67 to 1974-75 was 4,01,225 under the 'small water scheme' and 32,000 under the 'applied nutrition programme.'

FORESTRY

Even as early as the beginning of the present century there were no forests in the district except scanty stretches of dhak and babul jungles in the Shadiabad, Bahriabad and Pachotar parganas. Scattered trees are found throughout the district which are of the ordinary varieties common to the doab including such species as the mango, tamarind, *siras*, neem, banyan, *pipal, pakar, semal, shisham* and bamboo, most of which are indigenous though some have been introduced for the purpose of forming avenues along the roads.

NATURAL CALAMITIES

The district has suffered from scarcity on several occasions as a result of unfavourable climatic conditions but there have been few occasions when acute famine was experienced. This is due mainly to the geographical position of the district, as the rains seldom fail entirely. Never the less there are certain dangers to which the district is exposed at all times. Such as a late arrival of the rains, which causes a reduction in the *kharif* crop, or a premature cessation of the monsoon, which involves the loss of the important rice crop and also prevents the sowing of the full area for the ensuing *rabi*. This calamity also renders useless the tanks and *jhills* which are the only means of irrigation in the upland tracts. During the cold weather rain is usually uncertain. When the fall is abundant it is apt to

be detrimental as the prolonged damp or cloudy weather in the early part of the year is liable to cause extensive damage through rust to wheat and barley, especially in the alluvial lands of the Ganga.

As the experiences of Ghazipur were much the same as those of the other parts it may be concluded that the district did not escape the general famine of 1631, when grain was not obtainable and large numbers of people died of starvation. The next great calamity occurred in 1770, when prices rose to an unprecedented height in the districts along the Ganga, the valley of the Karamnasa also suffering a terrible plight. The famine of 1783 was the first to occur after the advent of British rule. Vast numbers of people, driven by starvation, streamed into Bihar. Warren Hastings stated in April, 1784, that the country was completely devastated but little was done to help the people except for the removal of duties on grain. The famine of 1803-04 followed on a rainless monsoon, causing the loss of the *khariif*. Grain was imported from Bengal and duties on gram were suspended. In 1819 the low state of the Ganga prevented the passage of large boats up river thus preventing the import of the much needed food-grains. In 1837-38 the rains failed and the breaking out of cholera and other diseases aggravated the distress caused by the rise in prices and the scarcity of grain. It was for the first time during the famine of 1868-69 that direct relief measures were undertaken by the government (opening of poor-houses and the provision of gratuitous relief to indigent people). A serious famine was experienced in 1873, when the rains began late and ended by mid-August. The *khariif*, particularly rice, was a total failure. In the lowlands the crops were destroyed by the floods. Relief works (building of certain roads from Ghazipur to Rasra and Muhammadabad to Qasimabad and the construction of two embankments through *jhils* near Saidpur and along the road from Saidpur to Bahriabad) were undertaken. A poor-house was also opened in Ghazipur, which provided relief to 9,731 persons. Gratuitous relief amounting to Rs 669 was given to 2,792 persons and doles of grain to 76,100 persons. The experience of the district was similar in 1877-78 though matters were much worse as the famine affected a much larger area. The rice crop had perished and other staples had failed more or less completely, the worst tract being the Zamania tahsil, Ghazipur also being seriously affected.

There were two remarkable falls of aerolites in the district on May 9, 1907, and June 7, 1910. The largest of the stones is said to have weighed over 40 kg. In 1919-20, there were floods in the Ganga which destroyed the *khariif* crops.

With the improvement in the means of transport, construction of State and private tube-wells and the adoption of a uniform famine relief policy in the State, famine (in the older sense of the word) has been

replaced by scarcity. No large-scale shortage of food-grains in any area is allowed to take place as they can be moved very quickly from surplus to deficit areas through the railways, road transport and if necessary through aeroplanes.

Floods

Floods are an annual feature of the district, the extent of damage caused varying from year to year. The Ganga has crossed the danger point several times during the last 50 years or so but it was only in the years 1898, 1916, 1923, 1934, 1945 to 1948, 1951, 1956 to 1960, 1973 and 1974 that the floods reached menacing proportions. The district experienced the worst floods in living memory in 1948 when there was an unprecedented rise in the level of the river. Almost all the main routes of communication were submerged and many villages were washed away or rendered uninhabitable, vast damage being caused to the economy of the district. The Gomati was in spate in 1891, 1894, 1915, 1946 and 1960. The habitations are generally not affected by the floods in this river but the crops suffer considerably. A state of scarcity arises in the district due to the failure, excessiveness or untimeliness of the rains causing extensive damage to the *kharif*. The *rabi* is not infrequently exposed to hail, frost, rust and other diseases and fires in the harvesting season. Locusts are also a serious menace at times and sometimes cause tremendous loss by devouring the standing crops.

To organise relief in the district, a subdivisional officer acts as officer in charge (scarcities) working under the overall charge of the collector. Relief to the affected people takes several forms such as the suspension and remission of revenue, distribution of *taqavi* loans and gratuitous grants and employment of the needy in construction and relief works such as roads, canals, etc., specially started for the purpose.

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

The district has a sound agricultural base and a reasonably good infrastructure but the industrial potential is low. The dominating agriculture and weak industrial base together appear to leave a gap which can be effectively bridged by a co-ordinated approach to enrich the economy of the district. The lack of enterprise and technical knowledge of the local people have been the major constraints in the industrial growth of the district. For lack of chronicles it is not possible to trace the development of industries, avocations and the level of achievement reached in the past but, as in other parts of the Country in ancient times and also in the Mughal period, many villages of this region constituted self-sufficient economic units, producing their own cloth, agricultural implements and other necessities of life. It is likely that during the reign of the first five Mughal emperors some handicrafts prospered and received considerable encouragement from them.

The old-time manufactures of the district are few but significant. Ghazipur has long been famous for the manufacture of perfumes, especially rose-water and *itr* (otto of roses). Rose-water was made in large copper stills which could hold from twelve to sixteen thousand roses each, water being added in the quantity of about 10 kg. to eight thousand roses, which yielded about seven kg. of rose-water. After distillation the water was exposed to the sun and air in glass bottles for several days and then sealed with cotton and clay. The *itr* of rose was essential oil obtained from rose-water, which was carefully collected with pigeon feathers. A local firm of this industry was awarded a medal for the quality of its product at the British Empire Exhibition in London in the last century. Now this industry is facing a gradual decline due to the shrinkage of cultivation of perfume-bearing plants and partly due to the fact that perfumers are anxious to make quick profits which is not possible with the method used in manufacturing perfumes in the indigenous manner.

The manufacture of sugar had a great importance. In 1881, there were 436 sugar refineries which produced about 70,000 maunds of sugar valued Rs 8,30,000. In 1907, there were 92 sugar factories in the district, of which 37 were located in the Ghazipur, 47 in the Muhammadabad and 6 in the Saidpur tahsils and 2 in Dhanapur, producing 69,900 maunds valued at Rs 9,46,500. The chief centres of this industry were Ghazipur,

Zangipur, Rajapur, Paraspur, Bamhnauli, Hanumanganj, Gangauli, Nonahara, and Qazipur Siraj. The process of manufacture was similar to that carried on at Ballia. Such units are no more in existence now and *khundsari* sugar producing units have taken their place. Another important industry was the manufacture of saltpetre, which was confined mainly to the parganas of Saidpur, Bahriabad, and Pachotar, but the most important were the five refineries of Saidpur, producing 12,500 maunds valued at Rs 18,750 which were fed with crude saltpetre by the Lunias of Bahriabad and Saidpur. In Bogna and four other villages of Pachotar, there were small factories manufacturing 2,300 maunds at a value of Rs 3,450 in the last quarter of the 19th century. Due to the introduction of cheap synthetic sodium nitrate, this industry is facing decay and the production has become very limited. The textile industry also afforded employment to a large number of persons but the fabrics made here were merely the coarser kinds of cloth. The weaving was mainly centred in Bahriabad and there was a big colony of Julahas who came from Mau. In Ghazipur the industry was started by weavers from Mirzapur who produced coarse cloth at one rupee per square yard. The products of this industry were mostly bed carpets of coarse hand-spun yarn, dyed with aniline colours. The ornamentation of bangles also occupied an important place in the sphere of industries of the district and was centred mainly in the villages of Paharipur and Sohawal. The ornamentation was done with *salma*, *sitara* and *gokharu*. Bangles were exported to Ballia and Muzaffarpur. This industry could not stand competition with other places and therefore started declining.

The other important industries of the district were the manufacture of utensils, *sajji*, cutlery, *naicha* and *satak kuppi* and *zardozi*. According to the census of 1961, the district had 3,524 as against the State average of 4,460 factories. Of these, 2,807 were in the rural and 717 in the urban areas. In the rural areas, 464 workshops were engaged in cotton spinning and in the urban 111 concerns manufactured earthenware, pottery and miscellaneous items.

Power

Electric power is available in the district from the U.P. grid. The district has 17 power substations. In both the villages and towns, most of the establishments are run without power. According to the 1961 census, the percentage of such establishments is 71.5 in the rural and 69.2 in the urban areas. Next come other means of power accounting for 13.4 in the rural and 12.8 in the urban establishments. Electricity was used in only 34 rural and 37 urban factories, indicating an extremely low pattern of power consumption in the district.

The consumption of power in various sectors of the economy in the district in 1974-75 was as follows :

Sector	Total consumption of power (KWH)	Number of connections
Industries	57,59,335	7,088
Others	47,45,13,169	8,951

Rural Electrification

Electricity was first brought to the villages in the district in 1967-68 and 237 villages were electrified in that year. By the end of March, 1972, the number had increased to 692, which is about 27.7 per cent of the total number of villages. The village electrification plan is expected to be stepped up during the Fifth Plan period. Another 600 villages are likely to be electrified by 1978-79.

Large-scale Industry

Opium and its allied products are produced in a large-scale unit located at Ghazipur.

Opium and Allied Products—Opium and Alkaloid Works, Ghazipur, a government enterprise, specialises in the manufacture of excise opium, export opium and alkaloids. In 1974, it had a net investment of Rs 3.18 crores with a total turnover of Rs 8.55 crores and afforded employment to 644 people. The raw material used is raw opium which is derived from the white or opium poppy (*papaver somniferum*) through the field organization of the industries department of the State, which comprises four divisions—Bareilly, Shahjahanpur, Bara Banki and Faizabad. Every year the Government of India notifies the areas in which poppy can be cultivated and the extent to which it can be cultivated in each division and licences are issued to cultivators, who desire to grow the plant.

This unit first established in 1820 under the Benaras Opium Agency is now the biggest industrial enterprise for making opium in the country. The factory consists of several godowns, power-houses and workshops. It is provided with a railway siding and the wagons containing opium are shunted out from the station to the factory siding. Raw opium is imported from different States and all the opium that is seized throughout the country is sent to this factory. Opium is also exported to different countries.

Small-scale Industries

The manufacture of rice, engineering goods, furniture, leather articles, utensils, *khandsari*, agricultural implements, weaponry, steel trunks, steel almirahs, candles and handloom cloth are the main small-scale

industries of the district as are colour packing, sugar processing and flour milling. The preservation of vegetables through cold storage is also undertaken in the district. As many as 634 units were registered with the directorate of industries, U.P., in 1974.

Dal Mills—Dal from legumes are produced in 16 units, which are located mainly at Zamania and Ghazipur. The units are either operated by electricity or diesel oil. There is an important unit at Zamania which produces dal and where rice is pounded from paddy. This unit was established with a total investment of Rs 1.50 lakhs and gave employment to 30 persons. In 1971-72 this unit produced dal worth Rs 12.75 lakhs and rice worth Rs 0.87 lakh.

General Engineering—Repairs and overhauling of machines by modern tools are undertaken by 26 units, located at Ghazipur and other tahsil headquarters. In view of the increase in developmental activities in the spheres of agriculture, transport and industries, there is a great demand for such units which can be expanded to meet the need.

Wood Work—The manufacture of wooden furniture, frames for doors and windows, beds, wheels for carts and timber work is done by 83 units, located at Ghazipur, Muhammadabad, Yusufpur, Saidpur, Gahmarpur, Bara, Dildarnagar, Reotipur and Zamania. Shisham wood is available locally which is used as raw material.

Leather Work—This industry is scattered all over the district but only 27 units are registered, which manufacture footwear and other allied articles of an ordinary standard.

Utensils—Utensils of aluminium are produced in 5 units, mainly located at Ghazipur. The products of this industry have only a local market.

Khandsari—The manufacture of *khandsari* sugar is taken up by 19 units, located at Zamania, Dullahpur, Mordah, Muhammadabad, Ghazipur and Nandganj. This industry is seasonal, the crushing of sugar-cane beginning in September and sometimes continuing till the close of April.

Agricultural Implements—Ploughs, crushers, buckets and pans (for making jaggery) are manufactured in 60 units located at Ghazipur, Muhammadabad, Nandganj and Zamania. These units are operated by electricity and use iron as raw materials.

Colour Packing—The packing of different types of colours is done up by a unit at Saidpur. The colours are imported from other districts.

Sugar Processing—A unit, located at Devkalee and run on a co-operative basis is engaged in this industry.

Steel Box and Almirah Making—Steel boxes and almirahs are manufactured by 15 units in the district. The raw materials are imported from Calcutta, Varanasi and Kanpur. The method of production of steel boxes is old and the use of improved tools and implements is lacking. Only 3 units are engaged in the production of almirahs, which have a local market.

Wax Candles—The manufacture of wax candles is done by 9 units in the district. This industry has a local market.

Flour Milling and Oil-pressing Industry—There are 245 units engaged in the production of wheat flour, oil-pressing and rice-hulling. As regards production of oil-seeds, Ghazipur happens to be an important district in the State. The extraction of oil is done through oil-engines and expellers. Such units are spread over the district particularly in Muhammadabad, Saidpur, Sadat, Nandganj, Ghazipur and Zamania. The local oil-seeds are not of good quality and so yield a lower percentage of oil.

Cold Storage—There are 7 cold storage plants in the district where mainly potato, onion, green vegetables, etc., are preserved.

Printing Works—There are 18 printing presses in the district. The raw material required is imported from other districts.

Handloom Industry—Dhotis, saris, *garha*, bedsheets, towels, curtains, etc., are produced by 3,108 weavers in the district. The trade is mainly located at Barapura, Champiabagh, Juran Sahud, Nooruddinpur, Singhwapur, Mustafabad, Bazdepur, Sherpur, Zangipur, Muhammadabad, Yusufpur, Balapur, Bahadurganj, Dullahpur, Sadat, Bahariabad, Rasoolpur, Mirzabad, Navpura, Kotwa and Dhawarjun. Efforts are being made to introduce power-looms and some units in this industry have been organized as co-operative societies. Cotton yarn is the main raw material used in the trade. Its scarcity in recent years caused some sort of a setback to this industry. The government have taken steps to overcome the shortage. The industries department of the State has subsidised the co-operative societies in setting up sales depots. This industry gets an incentive from the State government and there is a plan to change handlooms to framelooms.

The manufacture of bricks, dairy products, biscuits, ink and cement *jattes* are some other industries of the district.

The following statement gives the total investment value of produc-

tion and the number of persons employed in the small-scale industries of the district in 1974 :

Industry/ manufacture of	Total investment (in lakhs of Rs)	Total production* (in lakhs of Rs)	Number of persons employed
Dal Milling	1.83	1.52	52
General Engineering	2.29	2.25	70
Wood Work	10.10	11.40	270
Leather Work	0.79	1.60	60
Utensils	4.26	2.20	20
<i>khandari</i>	4.03	4.05	67
Agricultural Implements	9.03	9.36	219
Colour Packing	2.85	4.00	63
Steel Boxes and Almirahs	1.59	0.9	53
Wax Candles	0.31	0.55	34
Flour Milling and Oil-pressing	35.02	16.96	902
Cold Storage	22.41	5.50	60
Printing Work	4.46	3.69	89

Village and Cottage Industries

Village and cottage industries include mostly the handicrafts handed down from generation to generation. *Gur, tel ghanis*, door and window frames and other carpenter's pieces, footwear, pottery, baskets, blankets, agro-based commodities, match boxes, etc., are the goods falling under the group of these industries which are manned and owned by particular sections of the village community.

A survey of the village and cottage industries in 1956, revealed the following facts :

Total number of units	17,000
Total number of persons employed	62,700
Total investment (in Rs)	88,84,300
Total value of raw material used (in Rs)	1,69,08,000
Total value of goods produced (in Rs)	2,43,000

Gur Making—This industry is one of the main rural industries of the district and though scattered throughout the district. it is located mostly in



Woollen Blankets—Artisans, adept in the craft of weaving blankets from wool, produce blankets at Badhola, Sudhasvarpur, Goraba, Sugnipur, Maksudpur, Vasupur, Nari Panch Derva, Mansa Kalan, Grehmar, Shirpur, Chakmidhni and Baranpur. The wool is mainly obtained from sheep kept by manufacturers and a certain quantity is also imported from Mirzapur and other Places. The blankets, which are coarse, are sold to the villagers of the district. Two registered co-operative societies are also engaged in this industry.

Hookah Tobacco—This industry has been famous for its quality for a long time. There are more than 50 manufacturing units, employing about 400 persons. Though this is not a seasonal industry the work of production becomes somewhat slack during the rains. Tobacco, *reh*, molasses and perfumed spicy products are the main raw materials used in this industry. Tobacco stalks and leaves are locally available. The *khamtras* produced here are of high quality. This industry is located at Ghazipur, Muhammadabad, Saidpur, Zamania, Bahadurganj, Sadat and Zangipur.

Pottery—Pottery, an old industry of the district still provides sustenance to some people. In addition to earthenware and tiles, the potters usually concentrate on the images of gods and goddesses particularly of Ganesh, Lakshmi, Siva, Durga and Sarasvati. These products are easily sold on the occasions of fairs and festivals. Smooth black clay, commonly used for pot making, is available locally. The industry is not in a prosperous state. This industry is scattered in about 200 villages and more than 3,000 persons are engaged in it.

Other Industries—Coconut hookahs, *kuppis*, cutlery, biris, tin goods, soap, palm fans and baskets, etc., are produced in a large number of unregistered units in the district. Khadi spinning and printing and dyeing are also done in many units.

Industrial Estate—In 1968 an industrial estate was established in the district—the Harijan Industrial Estate, Ghazipur, with a provision for 10 sheds and space for more. Only 6 sheds were occupied of which 4 are taken by the firm U.P. Plant Protection Appliance (Private) Ltd. The remaining 4 are vacant.

Aid to Industries

Ghazipur is one of the industrially underdeveloped districts of the State and assistance is given to various industries in the district under State aid and the credit guarantee schemes of the State Bank of India but as there is a dearth of enterprise in the district, the credit facilities are not being utilized fully.

The U. P. Financial Corporation advances loans at a lower rate of interest than other institutions—between 7 and 7.5 per cent, with a rebate of 1 to 1.5 per cent for prompt repayment. It gives a longer grace period also—up to 4 years and a longer repayment period—up to 15 years.

General Financial Institutions

The Industrial Development Bank of India and the Industrial Financial Corporation of India advance loans for projects up to rupees one crore to entrepreneurs at an interest rate lower by one per cent than the normal rate.

The U. P. Financial Corporation, Kanpur, extends assistance to industrial concerns on its own behalf and on behalf of the State government. Its own plan of disbursement is known as the corporation loan scheme and loans are advanced on behalf of the State government under the liberalised loan scheme and the ordinary loan scheme. Under the former, loans are advanced at reduced rates of interest and for longer periods (extending up to 15 years). The corporation has been authorised to carry out and transact various types of business but it has confined its present activities to the granting of loans to industrial concerns, to the issue of deferred payment guarantees to industrial units for the purchase of indigenous machinery from manufacturers and suppliers and in acting as agent of the State government for various schemes. The corporation can grant loans under the corporation loan scheme to the extent of Rs 30,00,000 in the case of private and public limited companies or registered co-operative societies and Rs 15,00,000 in the case of proprietorship concerns. The rate of interest is 11.5 per cent per annum with a rebate of 2 per cent for prompt payment. The loans under the ordinary loan scheme and the liberalised loan scheme are considered for amounts ranging from Rs 5,000 to Rs 50,000. The applications for loans under the schemes are channelised through the district industries officer, Ghazipur. The interest charged is 8 per cent per annum with a rebate of 2 per cent for prompt payment. The loans are recoverable in 8 equal instalments. The number of instalments is increased in the case of the liberalised loan scheme. The following statement gives an idea of the loan assistance provided by the corporation :

Scheme	No. of units	Loan disbursement on 31.3.74 (in lakhs of Rs)
Corporation loan scheme	1	0.60
Liberalised loan scheme	4	1.70
Ordinary loan scheme	1	0.07

The other institutions which have rendered assistance to the industries of the district are the U. P. Small-scale Industries Corporation, Kanpur, and the National Small Industries Corporation. The State government also helps through the handloom industry scheme, the khadi development scheme, the intensive development scheme, the credit and grant scheme and the industrial society scheme.

The district can enjoy more financial assistance under the State Aid to Industries Act and the credit guarantee scheme of the State Bank of India, the credit facilities are not being fully utilized.

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIAL AND PLANS FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

With the introduction of modern methods of cultivation and a minimum price guarantee for agricultural produce, the economic condition of the people has improved providing the district with a better base for industrial development. As there is only a large-scale unit in the district, there is scope for the establishment of a few more and also for ancillary industries.

Means of communications play an important role in a developing economy because they enable quick movement of finished goods to markets and raw materials to production units. There is a network of roads connecting the district with all important places within and outside the district which in itself is a potential for the movement of goods, etc. Though Ghazipur is not on the main line, a branch line of the north-eastern railway passes through it, which can help in an increment in the transportation of goods and commodities.

Many places in the district are electrified and so various small-scale industries using power can be started. The district receives electric power from U. P. grid.

The district is poor in natural resources and so agriculture can be developed further to provide certain crops and bye-products which can be processed and utilized by some small-scale industries.

Industries are usually classified under 2 major heads, resource-based and demand-based industries. Certain industrial units can be established of the former type to utilize the available resources of the district. A solvent extraction plant could be set up in the district which produces oil-seeds in a large quantity. Much of the oil is left in oil-cakes which can be extracted by the solvent extraction process and the oil recovered exported as well as the dry oil-cake. A potato-chip plant can be established at a trade centre, as a considerable quantity of potatoes is also produced here. A small-scale manufacturing unit for strawboard can also be established as paddy, wheat and maize husk, the raw material of this industry, is available. As the district also produces green peas in

considerable quantity which is one of the items of consumption by the people of the district, even when it is not in season, there is a big scope for a factory for the dehydration of peas. Flour is milled by *atta* mills but there is no roller flour mill in the district. With the increasing demand for *maida* and soojee, a roller flour mill could be established. The leather industry could be developed further and the number of persons employed in it increased and a few dal mills could also be started to utilise the local product.

The size of the market, levels of income, educational standards, degree of urbanization, the habits and outlook of consumers are major factors which determine demand-based industries. With the advancement of medical aid and the expansion of hospitals and primary health centres, the demand for distilled, saline and glucose water has increased, so some manufacturing units can be set up to meet this demand. Units for the manufacturing steel furniture, rolling shutters, conduit pipes, utensils, electric goods, hosiery items, garments, cycle parts, polythene sheets and bags, plastic novelty items, toys and toilet articles can be set up in the district. There is scope for a few more cold storage plants also. The old cottage industries need serious attention and efforts deserve to be made in order to revive them.

Labour Organization

There were 7 trade unions registered in the district in 1975, with a total membership of about 987 workers. The main objects of these unions are to ensure fair wages, good living and working conditions, proper medical and educational facilities for labourers and their general welfare. They also help in creating a healthy relationship between employers and employees.

Labour Welfare—The Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, the Employment of Children Act, 1936, the U.P. Maternity Benefit Act, 1938, the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, the Employees State Insurance Act, 1948, the U. P. Industrial Establishment (National Holidays) Act, 1961, and the Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961, are applicable in the district (as elsewhere). There is a labour inspector in the district whose duty is to ensure the enforcement of labour laws, the advancement of labour welfare schemes and to maintain liaison between employees and employers.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

BANKING AND FINANCE

History of Banking

Details about indigenous banking in the district are not available but it may be presumed that the general practices which prevailed in the trade centres of northern India also obtained here. Ghazipur was an important centre of riverine trade in ancient and mediaeval times. Merchandise was brought from distant places in the west and east and merchants also exported grain and other goods. Trade flourished, particularly in the reign of Akbar, and money was available for this purpose with the affluent. There were many treasuries in the mediaeval period but they were in a bad state. Akbar introduced certain reforms and the State treasuries were placed under responsible officers. The district received its supply of coins from a mint at Jaunpur.

There are no details available about the guild system in the area now covered by the district but it is likely that the system was in vogue here as elsewhere.

The British established their own treasury at Ghazipur after taking over the administration of the district in 1795. Subsequently subtreasuries were established at the four tahsil headquarters. For more than a century the treasuries were the main centre for the collection and expenditure of money. The district magistrate was the *ex officio* officer in charge of the treasury. He was assisted by a treasury officer and other staff.

A number of persons from the trading community, the majority of whom belonged to Varanasi, also operated as indigenous bankers. At the close of the last century, the tendency of the land to pass into the hands of the trading classes for nonpayment of debt was more or less general all over the district. There were many such bankers in the district in the first decade of this century who owned the land of agriculturists who could not repay their debts and sold their agricultural land to the bankers. (For instance Batuk Prasad, an Agarwala banker of Varanasi, owned 10 villages and a part of another village in the district in 1908, which had a revenue of Rs 7,724 and an area of 5,814 acres and Kishan Chand and Brijnath Das had flourishing banking transactions at Ghazipur and owned 11 villages in the district, with a total area of 4,822 acres and a revenue of Rs 6,898).

In 1908, there were two village banks—one each at Saidpur and Tajpur in pargana Zamania. They were established in 1907 at the initiative of the court of wards. Each bank had a subscription of Rs 2,000 from its members and each received a like amount from the government. In that year there were 9 depositors and 215 borrowers at Tajpur and 20 depositors and 275 borrowers at Saidpur. The banks advanced money to tenants at a uniform rate of 12 per cent per annum for various purposes such as the conversion of old debts carrying a higher interest, the purchase of agricultural stock and the provision of money for ceremonial purposes. Subsequently these banks were closed.

The District Co-operative Bank, Ltd, was the first bank to be established at Ghazipur on June 17, 1915. The Allahabad Bank opened a branch there on September 5, 1950, and the State Bank of India a branch on September 11, 1957. The Uttar Pradesh State Co-operative Land Development Bank, Ltd, opened a branch at Ghazipur in 1962, one branch each at Muhammadabad and Saidpur in 1964 and a fourth branch at Dildarnagar in 1969. The number of co-operative and commercial banks has increased since 1969. There were 23 branches of five commercial banks in the district in 1975. The District Co-operative Bank, Ltd, Ghazipur, has opened 10 branches in the district. There were 38 banks operating in the district in 1975. The following statement gives the number of offices of each bank in the district as in 1975 :

Bank	No. of branch offices
Commercial Bank	
Union Bank of India	13
Allahabad Bank	4
The Benares State Bank, Ltd	3
State Bank of India	2
Punjab National Bank	1
Co-operative Bank	
The District Co-operative Bank, Ltd, Ghazipur	11
Uttar Pradesh State Co-operative Land Development Bank, Ltd	4
Total	38

Rural Indebtedness

About 1908, the rise in the value of agricultural produce had begun to benefit the agriculturists and the growing demand for labour had a similar effect on the labouring classes. Temporary emigration was also a factor of importance as was illustrated by the sizeable sums transmitted annually to the district through the post-office. By now agriculturist families had begun to retain their land with far more success than in the first half of the nineteenth century and the acquisition of land on the part of money-lenders was somewhat on the decline.

The rates of interest depended both on the nature of the transaction and on the character and credit of the borrower. Where money was lent on the security of real estate, the rate ranged from 7-1/2 to 18 per cent per annum. Most loans of this nature were offered at 12 or 15 per cent but, as a general rule, the smaller the principal, the higher the interest charged. Loans on personal security carried an interest varying from 12 to 36 per cent. The chief factor in determining the rate was the length of the term and the status of the borrower. For petty loans up to Rs 100, the rate was two pice per rupee per month, half this amount being exacted when ornaments or other property were deposited. The great majority of loans comprised the advances made to cultivators by the village money-lender. Cash loans were secured on the borrower's tenure, the interest varying from 12 to 18 per cent per annum according to the amount of the loan. When grain was lent at seed time, the repayment was made at harvest time with interest at *sawal*—one-fourth added to the principal or else at *deorha*—when one-half was added to the principal. Another common practice was to record the loan in terms of the cash value of the grain when it was dearest and repayment was demanded of the amount when prices were low, usually at harvest time.

A large number of agriculturists joined the armed forces in the wake of the First World War (1914—18) and a substantial amount of money from the salaries of these men was sent to their relatives in the villages but the value of these cash remittances from outside is not known.

The economic depression of the years from 1928 to 1932 led to much suffering as the income of the cultivators declined with the decreasing prices. Prices rose slowly in 1934 and increased during the Second World War (1939—45). A large number of villagers again joined the armed forces and a considerable amount of money was sent by them to their relatives in the district. The high prices of agricultural commodities gave the agriculturists good returns. In terms of money and some of them were able to repay old debts.

Prices have continued to rise ever since the fifties, the cost of consumer goods, farm inputs, cloth, fertilisers, etc., have also increased, involving extra expenditure by the agriculturists. The population of the district grew by 15.83 per cent in the decade 1951—61 and by 15.90 per cent in the decade 1961—71. It is estimated that the population of the district at its present rate of growth will be 18,50,000 in 1980. The high density of the population is a major cause of the low per capita income in the district. The per capita annual income was Rs 171.60 in 1960-61, at the then prevailing prices, while the corresponding figure for Uttar Pradesh and India were Rs 261.33 and Rs 330.00 respectively.

The Reserve Bank of India estimated that a cultivator was indebted to the extent of Rs 286.98 in 1962. Another all-India debt and investment survey in 1971 revealed the following facts about the district, the figures indicating the average assets and debts per household :

Household of	Assets (value in Rs)	Debt (value in Rs)
Cultivator	16,037.15	265.65
Agricultural labourer	1,212.13	161.07

Urban Indebtedness

Industrial and office workers residing at Ghazipur, Saidpur and other urban centres have been facing financial difficulties due to the high prices of essential commodities prevailing up to the first-half of 1975 and a large number of them is indebted.

An artisan of the district earns about Rs 7 to 10 per day. The Reserve Bank of India held a survey in 1971, which estimated that the total average value of the assets of the household of an artisan was Rs 2,545.16 and the family was indebted to the extent of Rs 125.12.

Debt-relief Legislation

The Usurious Loans Act, 1918, was the first enactment which authorised the courts to reopen transactions between the parties and relieve the debtor of all liability when the interest was excessive and the transaction unfair. By an amendment in 1926 the Act was made applicable to all parties seeking relief from mortgage but it did not define the words 'excessive' and 'unfair' and so the courts were unable to take effective decisions. By another amendment made in 1934, the Act was made applicable to all debt and debtors and it also provided definite limits beyond which the rate of interest should be deemed to be excessive. The

other enactments that followed the economic depression of the thirties were the United Provinces Agriculturists' Relief Act, 1934, the U.P. Temporary Postponement of Execution of Decrees Act, 1937, and the United Provinces Debt Redemption Act, 1940, which enabled a considerable reduction in the rates of interest and the payment of easy instalments in the defraying of debts. They also protected the person and property of debtors from being proceeded against in the execution of decrees.

Role of Private Money-lenders and Financiers

The money-lenders in the district are generally well-to-do farmers, merchants and village traders. Large numbers of money-lenders from Varanasi also advance money in the district.

The rates of interest vary from 24 per cent per annum to 40 per cent per annum.

Commercial Banks

There are 23 branches of five commercial banks in the district. The following statement gives the location of each branch :

Bank	Location of branch
Union Bank of India	Ghazipur, Zamania, Gahmar. Reotipur, Sadat, Muhammadabad, Nandganj, Mardah, Zangipur, Saidpur, Bahadurganj, Karimuddinpur, Karanda
Allahabad Bank	Ghazipur, Dula hpur, Muhammadabad, Dildarnagar
The Benares State Bank, Ltd	Ghazipur, Saidpur, Zamania
State Bank of India	Ghazipur, Saidpur
Punjab National Bank	Ghazipur

Co-operative Movement

The co-operative movement in the district was initiated in the first decade of the twentieth century, when *patti* societies were formed. These were later pooled to form the District Co-operative Bank, Ltd, at Ghazipur in 1915. As funds were made available by the bank, 14 agricultural co-operative credit societies were formed in 1915-16. The following statement indicates the growth of the co-operative movement since its inception :

Year	No. of primary agricultural co-operative societies	Loans advanced to agriculturists (in Rs)
1915-16	14	not available
1919-20	70	do
1924-25	95	do
1934-35	107	10,305
1944-45	318	1,56,315
1954-55	726	7,68,010
1964-65	1,086	1,31,40,933
1973-74	786	89,97,522

The rate of interest was 7 per cent per annum in 1957 and it varied between 14 and 15 per cent per annum in 1974-75.

After 1965, the small societies were amalgamated to form large viable ones on account of which the number of societies decreased to 786 in 1974 from 1,086 in 1965. The co-operative movement grew steadily till 1966, when the membership was 1,13,157 but the membership has not increased since then as indicated in the following statement :

Year	Membership of primary agricultural societies
1966-67	1,13,157
1967-68	1,02,533
1968-69	1,01,123
1969-70	1,05,990
1970-71	95,557
1971-72	96,697
1972-73	97,448
1973-74	1,08,235

The outstanding debt of the agricultural co-operative societies has been increasing steadily. It was Rs 1,47,28,260 in 1970 and Rs 1,97,64,818 in 1974.

Other Co-operative Institutions

The District Co-operative Development Federation, Ltd, Ghazipur was established in 1948. It is the central institution for consumers' co-operatives. It buys and sells seeds, food-grains and other goods (fertilisers,

cement, cloth, etc). The following statement gives some important data pertaining to this institution :

Investment in 1974 (in Rs)	Value of goods sold (in Rs)			Profit (in Rs)		
	1960	1970	1974	1960	1970	1974
Total investment Rs 3,64,403	5,10,56	4,35,229	32,42,779	24,117	76,444	1,16,921
Working capital Rs 3,22,227						
Fixed capital Rs 42,176						
Total	3,64,403					

There are four large co-operative marketing societies situated at Zamania, Zangipur, Saidpur and Yusufpur. Food-grains, cloth, fertilizers and consumer goods are sold in the shops of the marketing societies. Agriculturists sell their food-grains and other products through the societies and are assured of just returns for their products. The following statement gives the value of the sales of each of the marketing societies which are known as Sahkari Kraya Vikraya Samitis :

Marketing society (location)	Value of sales in 1974 (in Rs)	Profit earned in 1974 (in Rs)
Zangipur	18,03,606	5,783
Yusufpur	15,74,714	31,838
Saidpur	3,27,060	8,922
Zamania	2,64,300	4,806

The agriculturists of the district are members of these societies. The following statement gives the number of members of each society in 1973-74 :

Marketing society (location)	Membership
Saidpur	7,616
Yusufpur	7,035
Zangipur	6,042
Zamania	1,287

Co-operative Banks

The District Co-operative Bank, Ltd, Ghazipur, has 10 branches, one each located at Yusufpur, Saidpur, Dildarnagar, Sadat, Zamania, Mardah, Karimuddinpur, Karanda, Kasimabad and Nandganj. The bank finances the co-operative institutions of the district and also provides banking facilities to its members.

The following statement indicates the operations of the bank in 1970 and 1974 :

Deposits (in Rs.)		Rate of interest in 1974 (on deposits)	No. of accounts		Advances (in Rs)		Rate of interest (on advances)
1970	1974		1970	1974	1970	1974	
1,51,28,000	1,08,97,000	4.50 to 7.50 per cent per Year	4,250	8,375	1,17,55,000 (for one year) 31,31,000 (for 3 to 5 years)	1,23,13,000 (for one year) 21,96,000 (for 3 to 5 years)	7.50 to 10 per cent per year

The Uttar Pradesh State Co-operative Land Development Bank, Ltd, has four branches one each located at Ghazipur, Muhammadabad, Saidpur and Dildarnagar. The bank provides medium and long-term loans (for 7 to 17 years) at 9.50 per cent per annum for the development of agriculture. In recent years the bank has advanced loans for minor irrigation. The following statement shows the amount advanced by each branch of the bank in 1970 and 1974 :

Location of branch	Amount advanced (in Rs)	
	1970	1974
Ghazipur	6,49,000	5,95,000
Muhammadabad	4,68,550	5,88,736
Saidpur	2,11,850	8,20,250
Dildarnagar	60,300	15,43,250
Total	13,89,700	35,47,236

National Savings Organisation

The post-office savings bank scheme has been in operation in the district since the last decade of the nineteenth century. This and the other

subsequent small savings schemes have been formulated to tap the savings of those who generally do not subscribe to government loans and to inculcate the habit of thrift in people, in order to make funds available for investment in development schemes. The war with China in 1962 led to the introduction of defence deposit and national defence certificates through which funds were raised for the defence of the country.

Various securities have been floated from time to time. The Government of India have introduced a 15-year public provident fund scheme in 1974-75 for the benefit of people who have no regular savings schemes for old age like pension or provident fund. Any individual can subscribe to the fund either for his own benefit or on behalf of a minor whose guardian he is. The following statement gives the value of the securities as December 31, 1974 :

Type of security	Value (in Rs)	No. of accounts
7-year national saving certificates	9,07,290	--
Personal recurring deposits	1,75,765	1,307
Postal time deposits	42,51,315	8,571
Cumulative time deposits	2,93,327	86
Small savings bank	1,53,92,688	3,833
Total	2,10,20,385	13,797

Life Insurance

The life insurance business was taken over by the life insurance corporation of India in 1956 and a branch-office of the corporation was opened at Ghazipur in that year. In 1975 the office was manned by four class I officers, nine class II officers, a clerical staff of 20 persons and 4 others. The following statement shows the business procured in the district from 1972-73 to 1974-75 :

Year	No. of persons insured	Amount insured (in Rs)
1972-73	3,569	3,28,85,000
1973-74	2,854	2,64,07,000
1974-75	2,972	2,71,48,500

In the district the value of per capita life insurance increased from Rs 35 in 1970 to Rs 38 in 1972 and to Rs 40 in 1974.

Government Loans

The rulers of the country have, on the whole, provided relief to agriculturists but with the attainment of Independence in 1947, loans have been advanced not only in times of distress but also for the development of agricultural economy.

The following statement indicates the amount of loans advanced by the revenue department of the U. P. government to agriculturists in the district :

Year	Purpose of loan	Amount (in Rs)	Rate of interest (per cent per annum)
1972	Meeting distress, live-stock, building of house, etc.	26,97,000	5.50 to 9.25
1974	Meeting distress, live-stock	11,11,800	5.50 to 8.50

The agriculture department of the State government advanced Rs 36,36,120 and Rs 8,43,258 to the agriculturists in 1972-73 and 1973-74 respectively for buying fertilisers and agricultural implements.

Currency and Coinage

Punch-marked coins, with one or two figures marked as symbols of the issuing authority, were in circulation as far back as the sixth century B.C. The imperial Guptas issued a series of fine old coins, which are considered to be of a high artistic standard. The weight of the earliest coins was based on the system laid down in the Manu Samhita. Generally coins of a single metal, copper or silver, were in circulation. The silver coin was known as the *purana* or *dhurana* and weighed 32 *rattis*¹.

In the mediæval period there were mainly three types of coins—the dam, the rupee and the *mohar*. A rupee comprised 40 dams and 10 rupees were computed as equal to a gold *mohar*². Money was made available from a mint at Jaunpur.

1. Majumdar, R. C. : *Ancient India*, p. 15

2. Pandey, A. B. : *Later Mediæval India*, p. 491, (Allahabad, 1963)

When the British first started ruling, the Gorakhpuri paisa, which was a thick square lump of copper, was in circulation in the district. About 5 paises made an anna in the nineteenth century and in the first decade of the twentieth century 104 such Paises were equivalent to a rupee. The British issued their own rupee of 180 grains. A rupee comprised 16 annas and an anna was divided into 12 pies or four pice (old).

The decimal system of coinge was introduced on October 1, 1958. The rupee has been divided into 100 Paise. There are coins of one Paisa, two, three, five, 10, 20, 25 and 50 Paises. The old four-anna bit and eight-anna bit are still in use, the former being equivalent to 25 Paises and the latter to 50 Paises.

TRADE AND COMMERCE

Course of Trade

Trade was carried on mainly along the river Ganga and in early days Ghazipur took a high rank as a trade centre as its position made it an important entrepot for the reception and distribution of foreign and local merchandise. The volume of trade traffic was very large in spite of the numerous obstacles caused by the imposition of zamindari dues and exactions of many descriptions. These were nominally abolished in 1787 but the more powerful landowners continued to impose tolls for goods passing through their estates for many years. There were also the *ganj* or market dues at Ghazipur itself, levied on grain and other articles brought into the city. But these ceased to exist in 1788, the sum realised in 1787 being Rs 6,785. A custom house was established at Ghazipur when the administration of the district was taken over by the East India Company in 1795. The custom house remained in existence, but in subordination to those of Benares and Mirzapur, till the abolition of the inland customs in 1843. For trade purposes the province of Benares (Varanasi) was separated from Bengal and Bihar. Goods exported from the province of Benares paid export duty at Ghazipur and import duty at Manjihat on the border of Bihar. Similarly imports were charged twice over. The revenue derived from the Ghazipur custom house amounted to about Rs 1,70,000 about 1789. Country boats had a maximum carrying capacity of about 40 tonnes and were propelled by sails and bamboo sweeps but the bulk of traffic was borne on smaller boats. The through trade was with Bengal and consisted of stone from Mirzapur and saltpetre from Jaunpur and the district itself traded in saltpetre and grain in bulk. Some of the Jaunpur traders brought their goods of Ghazipur for shipment through the river Gomati and their boats returned with rice, coal, timber, coconuts, cane and other commodities. Local traders exported pulses, gram and oil (from oil-seeds) from Zamania and onions, chillies and saltpetre from Saidpur and Ghazipur. At one time there was a consider-

able insurance business at Ghazipur but with the decline in traffic, the firms migrated to other places.

The riverine traffic was first adversely affected by the construction of roads but the real impact was felt after the construction of the railways in the district, one of the first results being the desertion of the river by the opium department which used to requisition a large fleet of boats annually. The chief markets at the close of the last century were located at Ghazipur, Saidpur, Muhammadabad and Bahadurganj.

The construction of the railways in the district commenced in 1862, when the broad-gauge railway line was laid between Mughal Sarai and Dinapur. This line passes through the southern fringe of the district, traversing the pargana of Zamania. Dildarnagar is one of the stations on this line and in 1880 it was connected with Tarighat, on the south bank of the Ganga, opposite Ghazipur. There was an improvement in communications when the metre-gauge railway line was laid running from Varanasi through Aunrihar to Ballia in 1903. This line covers a large portion of the western and eastern parts of the district and connects the district headquarters with Ballia and Varanasi. Aunrihar was linked with Jaunpur in 1904 and this junction station also connected the district with Azamgarh and Gorakhpur. The importance of the Ganga as an artery of traffic declined sharply as did the trade on the river Gomati along which trade was carried on with the district of Jaunpur.

Some of the rulers of Delhi had paid considerable attention to the development of roads but the roads running through this part hardly deserved the name of roads and were in an impassable state. No important route lay through the district, the trade routes connecting Ghazipur with the other provincial towns being in a very sorry state. With the advent of British administration in the district in 1795 some new roads were built and others improved. Trade by road could hardly be carried on but gradually a network of metalled roads came into existence. Roads connected the district with Varanasi, Gorakhpur, Ballia and Azamgarh. There were about 97.50 miles (156 km.) of metalled roads in the district in 1908 and there were unmetalled roads that connected the various urban and rural centres in the district. Ghazipur town became an important centre of trade in the first decade of the twentieth century. The imports consisted mainly of cotton and woollen fabrics from Calcutta and Kanpur. These were brought to the district through the agency of Marwari dealers. Apart from opium and grain, exports were inconsiderable, the most valuable being saltpetre, sugar, perfumes, glass bangles and hides and bones, the last two being sent to Calcutta and the others to neighbouring districts. This was the trade pattern of the district till the end of British rule. The roads have been considerably improved since then and there were 596 km. of metalled and 223 km. of unmetalled roads in the district

in 1974. Trucks are used in large numbers for the transport of goods, carrying them to and from Kanpur, Allahabad, Varanasi, Lucknow, Azamgarh and Ballia.

The pace of trade has been increasing steadily. In 1961 only 1.34 per cent of the total population of the district was engaged in trade and commerce, the figure increasing to 3.11 per cent in 1971, in which year 26.03 per cent of the urban and 2.19 per cent of the rural population was engaged in trade and commerce. Agricultural production has also increased but it lags behind the rise in population. Ghazipur remains only an ordinary market for consumer goods but thriving wholesale markets in agricultural products have come up at Zangipur, Yusufpur, Saidpur and Zamania. The industrial outlook of the district has not registered any major change but dyes and candles, which are produced in the district, are exported and also sold in the markets of the district. Potatoes, dulse and cauliflowers are also exported to the neighbouring districts. The main item of export even today is opium and its products, which are manufactured in the old, large-scale factory at Ghazipur.

Exports and Imports

Exports—The main items of export are opium and its various products. In 1974 the value of these export was Rs 6,31,00,000. The products are exported to other States of India and to Europe, the United State of America and Russia.

Imports—The district imports a large number of commodities. Poppy seed (for the manufacture of opium) is imported from Bara Banki, Shahjahanpur, Jammu and Kashmir, Rajasthan and Maharashtra. Cloth and metal goods are imported from Kanpur and handloom cloth from Mau (in Azamgarh district). Medicines and drugs are imported from Bombay, Ghaziabad and Calcutta. Fertilizers are imported from Gorakhpur and coal from Bihar. General merchandise is imported from Varanasi and Allahabad. Food-grains are imported by government agencies. The following statement indicates the approximate quantities of some of the commodities imported into the district from March 1, 1974 to April 30, 1975 :

Commodity	Quantity (Approximate)
Food-grains	30,600 tonnes
Cement	30,000 tonnes
Coal	30,000 tonnes
Fertilisers	13,000 tonnes
Iron goods	5,000 tonnes
Kerosene oil	6,00,000 litres

Trade Centres

In the past the main wholesale market was situated at Ghazipur by the side of the Ganga. It was mainly an assembling and distribution centre. The land on which the shops were situated belonged to various shopkeepers.

Near about 1772 the market assumed greater importance as goods arrived on the Ganga from Bihar, Bengal and other places. General merchandise was imported from Bengal and Bihar and wheat from Punjab. General merchandise included such items as cloth, spices and coconut oil. The market was the main centre for the export of cotton, jaggery, potatoes, linseed, mustard-seed, pulses, rose-water, perfumes and other agricultural commodities to Bengal and Assam. The market comprised two sectors, known as Anajahi Bazar and Jhanda Ter up to 1866. After this year it came to be known as Martinganj. In 1906, it had about 56 shops of considerable size for food-grains. However, with the development of the railways and roads since 1910, the market lost much of its earlier importance. There was only one wholesale dealer in food-grains in 1975 who collected wheat, pulses, rice, gram, and coarse grains from the wholesale markets at Zangipur and Yusufpur.

The Ghazipur market has developed in the trade of cloth, iron goods, cement, wooden furniture and frames, allopathic medicines and general merchandise. There are shops on both sides on the road facing the district hospital. The following statement gives the number of wholesale dealers employed in various types of trade in the market :

Trade	No. of wholesale dealers in 1975
Cloth	13
Cement	12
Allopathic medicines	10
Iron goods	3
Wooden furniture and frames	1
Agricultural commodities	1

Other wholesale regulated markets are located at Zangipur, Yusufpur, Saidpur and Zamania. The Saidpur market is held 6 days in a week and each of the other wholesale markets 2 days in a week. The following statement shows the approximate quantities of commodities sold in each market in 1974 :

Market	Name of commodity sold	Quantity (in quintals)
Yusufpur	Wheat, <i>bajra</i> , rice, <i>arhar</i> , vegetable oil	12,000
Saidpur	Wheat, rice, vegetables, <i>khoa</i> , dyes	12,000
Zangipur	Wheat, rice, <i>arhar</i> , <i>bajra</i> , jowar	9,000
Zamania	Wheat, rice, <i>bajra</i> , jowar, <i>arhar</i>	8,000

There are very few commission agents in the wholesale markets (*mandis*) for the district, as the traders themselves collect the commodities and sell them. Some commission agents, belonging to the Bisheshwarganj market at Varanasi, operate in the *mandis* at Saidpur and Zamania. The retail trader gets a commission on sales and also gains from the difference in wholesale and retail prices.

Retail Trade—The common requirements of the villagers and the people living in the urban areas of the district are generally met by small traders and pedlers frequenting local bazars. In the rural areas the bazars are known as *hats* and are held once or twice a week. In the urban centres the retail markets are held daily and are closed only once a week. General merchandise, cloth, food-grains, utensils and vegetables are generally sold in these markets. The following statement gives the number of retail markets held in each tahsil of the district:

Tahsil	No. of markets held
Muhammadabad	31
Ghazipur	8
Zamania	6
Saidpur	5
Total	50

Warehousing—The various organisations functioning in the district have a number of warehouses with a total capacity of 31,771 tonnes. Most of the warehouses are located in the central region of the district comprising the tahsils of Ghazipur and Zamania. In this region a total

capacity of 15,820 m. tons is available for storing goods. In the Saidpur and Muhammadabad tahsils the warehousing capacity available is 2,905 m. tons and 2,946 m. tons respectively. There are very few private warehouses and the majority of structures where goods are sold are mere open-air platforms, where goods cannot be stored in the rainy season. The following statement gives the break-up of warehousing capacity in the district :

Organisation	Capacity (in tonnes-approximate)
Co-operative department	20,625
Agriculture department	6,200
Food corporation of India	4,948
Total	31,771

Price Control and Rationing

In the wake of the Second World War (1939-45) the prices of nearly all commodities increased and in order to arrest their further rise and to give relief to the consumers, chiefly in the urban areas, the prices of a large number of commodities were controlled and the supply of many of them to the consumers was rationed. Some of the more important commodities thus controlled or rationed were food-grains, cloth, matches, drugs and petrol. Dealers dealing in these commodities had to get licences from government officers. Various schemes for the rationing of food-grains, chiefly wheat and its products, gram, rice, sugar and kerosene oil, have been tried out since then with varying spheres of applicability and in 1975 there were 284 fair-price shops in the district where sugar was also sold. For the sale of kerosene oil and cement there are 20 and 72 wholesale agents respectively in the district. Coal is available at 7 depots which are situated in the urban centres of the district.

Fairs

A list of fairs held in the district is given at the end of the chapter III. Most of the fairs are of a religious character and trading in the fairs is negligible. The biggest fair is held in the village of Gorkha in the Saidpur block on Aghan Sudi 5 and is known as Dhanus Yagya. Near about 40,000 people assemble in this fair. Traders from Jaunpur, Varanasi and Mau sell cloth, utensils, earthenware and toys here. Local traders sell sweetmeats, bamboos and articles made of wood. This village is situated near the Nandganj railway station and people flock to

the fair by train and bus. Another important cattle fair is held at Nandganj in the Deokali development block on Jyaistha Sudi 10, where live-stock is sold. Near about 10,000 persons attend this fair.

Weights and Measures

The local standards of weight varied from place to place in the past, though not to the same extent as in the adjoining districts of Varanasi and Jaunpur. The government seer of 80 tolas was in vogue in the beginning of the twentieth century and so was the seer of 104 tolas. It was derived from 25 *gandas* (or handfuls), each *ganda* consisting of 4 square lumps of copper known as Gorakhpuri paisa. The local kutchra seer, which was sometimes found in the outlying markets, was exactly half this standard, being equivalent to 52 rupees in weight and containing 14 *gandas*. Measures of length were derived from *jau* or barley corn, of which 3 made an *angul*, 3 *anguls* making a *gtrah* which equalled the fourth of a span and the eighth part of a *hath* or cubit. The last named was half a yard in length but the *gaz* or yard differed according to its application, varying from the Akbari or Ilahi *gaz* of 33 inches to the cloth yard of 37 inches. In measuring land the unit was the *latha* or rod, being 3 yards or 6 cubits in length. One of the greatest reforms introduced by Jonathan Duncan (the Resident of Varanasi) was his insistence on the use of a standard measuring rod in place of the arbitrary unit used by the landholders. This was fixed at 8 feet 4.80 inches, on the presumption that the Ilahi *gaz* was 33.60 inches in length. 20 such rods made the chain or *jarib* and the square *jarib* made the bigha, which was equivalent to 3,136 square yards. This bigha was replaced by the standard bigha of 3,025 square yards in 1884. In the Saidpur pargana there was a different local bigha of 2,139.06 square yards, introduced in 1831. The bigha was ordinary subdivided into 20 *biswas* and the *biswa* into 20 *dhurs*. The interest of shareholders in an estate was estimated not in subdivisions of the bigha but in fractions of the rupee. The anna was divided into pies or else into *gandas*, being equivalent to 20 of the latter. The *gandas* were again divided into an infinity of *bats*, *sats*, *kants*, *dants*, *rens*, *plans* and so on. The ultimate limit, so far as could be ascertained, was the *ken*, of which 2,78,69,18,400 made the rupee. Practically every village had its own customary scale, developed by the local *patwari*. The British government faced a major problem while enforcing a standard scale.

The metric system of weights and measures, which was introduced in the district from October 1, 1960, is being enforced by the district supply officer, who is ex officio assistant controller of weights and measures. He is assisted among others by a senior inspector of weights and measures. The metric weights and measures are publicised in the

wholesale markets and traders are exhorted to use accurate weights and measures.

An idea of the penalties imposed during recent years may be had from the following table:

Year	No. of cases detected	No. of cases in which courts imposed punishment	Fine (in Rs) by courts	No. of cases compounded	Compounding fee realised (in Rs)
1972-73	199	3	200	129	5,200
1973-74	349	32	65	260	12,065
1974-75	344	13	350	238	8,895



CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

TRADE ROUTES AND HIGHWAYS

Old-time Routes and Roads

The remains of Buddhist relics along the road from Varanasi to Saidpur-Ghazipur and onwards to the Ghaghra show that it was an important route during the reign of the Mauryas. The route was followed by Hiuen Tsang during his visit to India in 637-639 A. D., the town of Ghazipur then being known as Garjapatipura, Yudhapatipura and Yudharanapura. Tradition states that Qutub-ud-din Aibak followed this route to the banks of the Ghaghra. Another important route ran from Varanasi to Buxur and on this route during the reign of Akbar the town Zamania was founded, which was formerly known as Madan Benaras, a town of great antiquity. Some of the rulers of Delhi paid attention to the development of roads but those running through this part could hardly be called roads. No important route traversed the district, the tracks connecting Ghazipur with the other provincial towns being in an impassable condition. After the British took up the reins of government in the district in 1775, they turned their attention to the construction of new roads and to the improvement of those that already existed. During the reign of Akbar, Ghazipur was made the headquarters of a sirkar under the subah of Allahabad and was connected with important provincial places. Generally speaking, most of the roads of the district are those which existed during the reign of Akbar except that they were unmetalled. In October 1788, Jonathan Duncan (the Resident of Varanasi) reported that the roads of the province were unbridged tracks. In the following years the farmers paying revenue and the zamindars were directed to keep the main roads within their lands in a due state of repair but as these orders had hardly any effect, a cess was imposed in 1841 for the building and repairing of roads, the administration of the funds from this cess being entrusted to a local committee under whose control the old lines were put into a proper state of repair, a number of new roads also coming into existence. These duties later devolved on the district board when it came into being. Roads connected the district with Varanasi, Gorakhpur, Ballia and Azamgarh. Since then progress was maintained and gradually a network of metalled and unmetalled roads came into existence which render communication possible between nearly all parts of the district as well as with important places outside the district.

At the beginning of the present century roads were divided into two main classes: provincial and local, the former being under the direct management of the public works department and the latter being entrusted to the district board. The most important provincial road was that from Ghazipur northward to Dohri-ghat (on the Ghaghra) and Gorakhpur, with a total length of 34.59 km. in the district. The principal metalled road was that from Varanasi to Saidpur, Ghazipur, Muhammadabad, Korantadih and Ballia, traversing the district from west to east. Another important road, though its traffic was adversely affected by the railway, was from Sultanpur near Burnon on the Gorakhpur road to Azamgarh. The remaining metalled local roads were short ones with the exception of that from Zamania to the railway station of the same name and that from Muhammadabad to Hata, which lay within the municipal limits, the total length of local metalled roads being 122.31 km. Although the unmetalled roads were of less importance, the more important of these was the road from Ghazipur to Zamania and the grand trunk road from Ghazipur to Lathudih and Ballia and that from Saidpur to Bahriabad and Sadat, the crossroad from Kotwa on the Ganga to Lathudih and Rasra and the branch road from Ballia to Qasimabad and Rasra. The other local roads were either of the fifth class, cleared partially, bridged and drained or of the sixth class which were cleared only.

The total length of unmetalled roads in 1907 was 791.80 km. which showed an increase of 111.04 km. over the preceding 30 years. The provincial roads were maintained by the public works department and all other roads (local) were managed by the district board.

The following statement gives the length of each metalled road existing in the district in 1908 :

Class of road	Condition	Approximate length (in km.)
Provincial		35
Local		
First class	metalled, bridged, drained	31
First class	metalled, partially bridged, drained	90
Second class	unmetalled, bridged, drained	89
Second class	unmetalled, partially bridged, drained	56
Fifth class	cleared, partially bridged, drained	407
Sixth class	cleared	240

Till 1947 most of the roads were not designed for heavy motor traffic which played havoc with them. There were 208 km. of metalled roads of which 154 km. were under the public works department and 54 km. under the district board (now the *zila parishad*). About 42 km. of village roads

were also constructed by voluntary labour (*shramdan*). Most of these roads were gradually taken over by the public works department.

Between 1947 and 1963 all the metalled roads were reconstructed by the public works department and by 1963 their length had increased to 330 km.

Highways

The roads of the district are now classified as national highways, State highways, major district roads, roads in the jurisdiction of the forest department and in that of the local bodies. The State public works department looks after the national highways and major district roads.

There is only one national highway No. 29, the Varanasi-Gorakhpur route, which passes through the district within which its length is 84 km. There are in the district about 391·176 km. of district roads, 110 km. of metalled and 428·83 km. of unmetalled roads which are maintained by the *zila parishad*.

The following statement gives some details about the roads having a length of 10 km. or more in the district maintained by the public works department:

Class/name of road	Approximate length (in km.)
National highway	
Varanasi-Gorakhpur road (route 29)	85
Major District Roads	
Ghazipur-Saidraza road No. 45	27
Ghazipur-Buxur road No. 118	40
Mau-Yusufpur road No. 41	34
Azamgarh-Orasand road No. 57	20
Tarighat-Reotipur-Gahmar Bara road No. 122	38
Jalalabad-Maridah-Qasimabad road No. 106	21
District Roads	
Ghazipur-Bahriabad road	12
Ghazipur-Chochakpur road	18
Muhammadabad-Karimuddinpur	26
Shadiabad-Bahariabad road	16
Nandganj-Shadiabad road	15
Ma'isa-Dharani-Suhwal road	—

(Continued)

Class/name of road	Approximate length (in km.)
Shramdan Roads	
Para-Qasimabad road	18
Rural Man-power Roads	
Saidpur-Sadat road	17

The statement below gives some details of roads maintained by the zila *Parishad* having a length of 5 km. or more in case of metalled road and of 10 km. or more for unmetalled road.

Classes and names of roads maintained by the zila *parishad* :

Class/name of road	Approximate length (in km.)
Metalled	
Balapur road	7
Saidpur-Bahariabad road	15
Ghazipur-Shadiabad road	■
Chochakpur-Dharammarpur road	6
Dullahpur-Sikrari road	5
Dildarnagar-Dewal road	■
Kabirpur-Awathahi road	6
Bihariaganj-Mandha road	13
Unmetalled	
Ghazipur-Nardah road	25
Zangipur-Para road	10
Ghazipur-Shadiabad road	16
Bhitari-Shadiabad road	11
Bhinapar-Rawjwari road	16
Allawahpur Karimuddinpur road	27
Yousufpur-Malsa road	11
Parasa-Amahat road	11
Alawahpur-Rasra road	14
Narainpur-Lathudih road	18
Yusufpur-Lathudih road	14
Para-Yasufpur road	11
Medanipur-Patkaria road	11
Sabwal-Dildarnagar road	23
Reotipur-Gadaipur Nagditpur road	14

Class/name of road	Approximate length (in km.)
Para-Yusufpur road	11
Medanipur-Patkaria road	11
Sahwal-Dildarnagar road	23
Reotipur-Gadaipur Nagditpur road	14

MODES OF CONVEYANCE

From the earliest times till the coming of the railways the usual means of transport and travel in the district were palanquins, horses, camels and vehicles drawn by bullocks, buffaloes, horses and camels. The bulk of heavy goods was moved by means of pack animals but valuable goods were usually carried in carts and carriages. Horses and ponies were very rarely used for draught purposes during the Mughal period. People in the villages depended largely on bullock carts and on vehicles drawn by bullocks and camels. Camel carts (which have now vanished) were a common sight in olden days. The ekka and the tonga have been an easy and cheap means of transport for many decades. With the construction and improvement of metalled roads, speedy mechanised transport (which can ply in almost any kind of weather) made its appearance and today motor cycles, motor-cars, scooters and other mechanised vehicles such as cycle rickshaws and bicycles are a common sight in the towns and their neighbourhood. As an economical and convenient means of transport, the bicycle is popular both in the rural and urban areas of the district. Cycle rickshaws are a recent addition to the modes of public conveyance and are so popular that they have literally driven ekkas and tongas off the roads. Carts driven by bullocks and buffaloes are even today the main type of conveyance in the rural areas of the district.

Vehicular Traffic

Motor vehicles, mainly lorries and trucks, started plying in the district from the fifties of the present century, their number increasing gradually and now they rush day and night on all the main routes in the district and also to the adjoining districts.

After the coming of Independence (in 1947) the volume of goods traffic has increased considerably. Consumer goods, agricultural produce and other commodities and articles are imported and exported in trucks. The freight is usually settled by the parties concerned and it varies per kilometre. Generally a truck can carry a weight of about 74 quintals. Taxies and buses are also available for the transport of passengers.

The following statement indicates the various kinds of vehicles registered in the district as in February, 1977 :

Kind of vehicle	Number of vehicles registered
Truck	213
Bus	35
Car	162
Mini bus	1
Taxi	13
Jeep	88
Station wagon	2
Pick-up	5
Tempo (auto rickshaw)	4

U. P. State Road Transport Corporation—The U. P. government roadways organisation, which was converted into the U. P. State road transport corporation with effect from June 1972, started running passenger buses in the district from 1954. Initially operations were started on the Ghazipur-Ujiarghat route by the plying of 6 buses. The total number of passengers carried in the year 1974-75 was 32,53,152.

With the development and improvement of roads and increasing passenger traffic, the corporation service has been expanded and in 1974-75 covered the routes as detailed below :

Route	No. of buses plying	Approximate length of route (in km.)
Ghazipur-Dohari-Bilthra	1	122
Ghazipur-Gorakhpur	2	146
Ujiar-Mau-Dohari	1	115
Ghazipur-Azamgarh	1	70
Ghazipur-Mau-Azamgarh-Ujiar	1	123
Ghazipur-Lucknow	2	339
Ghazipur-Manihari	2	24
Ghazipur-Ballia	3	80
Ghazipur-Qasimabad-Mau	2	52

The district is linked with roadways to the adjoining districts of Varanasi, Ballia, Azamgarh and Gorakhpur. Buses can also be reserved for sight seeing, excursions and marriage parties.

Railway—The first railway to be opened in the district was a section of the main line of the East Indian system (now Eastern railway) from Dinapur to Mughal Sarai, which was completed on December 22, 1862. The line, which was doubled in 1882, traversed the southern fringe of the district passing through the pargana of Zamania, with stations at Gahmar, Bhadaura, Dildarnagar and Zamania. A branch line from Dildarnagar was constructed as a provincial State railway. On October 5, 1880, this branch with a station at Nagsar and its terminus at Tarighat was opened on the south bank of the Ganga, opposite Ghazipur, 19·31 km. from Dildarnagar. This was later incorporated in the East Indian system (Eastern railway) by a contract on November, 1893. The lines in the tract north of the Ganga belonged to the metre-gauge line of the North Eastern railway. The first was that from Varanasi to Mau in Azamgarh which was opened on March, 15, 1899, which was connected with the railway from Mau to Turtipar, a branch of this line being opened from Aunrihar to Ghazipur, passing through the stations of Saidpur, Taroon, Nandganj, Ankushpur and Ghazipur town to Ghazipur Ghat. This system was subsequently completed by the extension north-eastward from Ghazipur to Phephna of the railway line from Kopaganj near Mau to Ballia and Revelganj. This extension was opened on March 11, 1903, and the stations on this line in this district were Shahbaz Kuli, Yusufpur, Dhonda Dih, Karimuddinpur and Tajpur.

In 1951 the railways were nationalized and the lines passing through the district were placed under the Eastern railway and the North Eastern railway. There are additional branch lines from Aunrihar to Jaunpur and from Kopaganj to Phephna.

The following statement mentions the railway stations of the district lying on the Eastern railway and the North Eastern railway :

Eastern Railway

Name of railway station	Distance from district headquarters (in km.)
DILDARNAGAR-TARIGHAT LINE	
Tarighat	3
Nagsar	11
Dildarnagar	21
MUGHAL SARAI-HOWRAH LINE	
Zamania	34
Darauli Halt	28
Dildarnagar	21
Bhadaura	29
Gahmar	37
Bara Kalan	41

*North Eastern Railway***AUNRIHAR-JAUNPUR LINE**

Daudhaundha	52
Aunrihar Junction	40

VARANASI-BHATANI LINE

Aunrihar Junction	40
Mahpur	48
Sadat	58
Jakhania	68
Dullaipur	76

VARANASI-CHAPRA LINE

Aunrihar	40
Saiyedpur Bhitri	35
Taraon	27
Nandganj	18
Ankushpur	8
Ghazipur City	—
Ghazipur Ghat	4
Shabajkuli	13
Yusufpur	20
Dhondhadih	28
Karimuddinpur	35
Tajpur Dehma	42

Bridges

There are a number of bridges and culverts on the railway track and the roads in the district. The railway maintain 70 bridges, the public works department 5 and the Zila Parishad 2.

Ferries—The number of ferries has considerably decreased after 1947 owing to the construction of several bridges. There are 15 ferries maintained by the Zila Parishad, Ghazipur.

Travel Facilities

It is mentioned in the *Jatakas* that the roads were not dangerous for travelling and in the Asokan edicts there is mention of rest-houses and wells existing on the main roads. The Mauryas had a separate department to look after roads and transport which provided a number of amenities for travellers. Sher Shah and the Mughal emperors, particularly Jahangir, took great interest in reducing the hardships of travel by planting trees and building serais and wells along the main roads.

Due to the existence of big serais on the old imperial roads in the district certain places developed as commercial centres.

Now travellers can reach the district by rail, bus and taxi. Boarding and lodging facilities are available in the urban centres of the district.

The district has road links with the adjoining districts of Varanasi, Ballia, Azamgarh, Mirzapur and Gorakhpur. It has dharmshalas, rest-houses, post-offices and telegraph offices at the district and tahsil headquarters.

The inspection houses, rest-houses and dak bungalows in the district are maintained by different departments of government and are meant chiefly for the use of their own officers but officers of other departments, members of the public and tourists are also lodged on payment if accommodation is available.

The public works department maintains 3 inspection houses in the district, 2 of which are located in tahsil Zamania and one 1·2 km. west of tahsil Muhammadabad. The department also maintains a rest-house in Saidpur.

The district soldiers', sailors' and airmen's board maintains a rest-house in Ghazipur proper. There are 2 inspection houses under the control of the irrigation department at Qasimabad in the Saidpur tahsil. A few hotels at Ghazipur, Zamania and other trade centres provide lodging and boarding and some tea stalls provide food and light refreshment. There are dharmshalas at Ghazipur, Zamania, Muhammadabad and Saidpur which are privately managed and charge only a nominal rent for accommodation, arrangements for boarding having to be made separately.

POST-OFFICES AND TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE OFFICES

In early days communication was maintained with Varanasi by the police and there was no public post till the introduction of Act XVII of 1837, which was followed by the organization of a district post ten years later. The imperial and district post-offices were amalgamated in 1866 but the latter continued to exist in a modified form till the final abolition of the district dak in 1906. The operations of the post-office were largely extended in 1861 with a further rise till 1871 and by 1881 there were 19 post-offices in the district. In 1908, in addition to the head office at Ghazipur, there were 13 postal suboffices and 23 branch offices. In 1914 there were 14 suboffices and 26 branch offices and in 1931-32 the strength was 2 suboffices and 33 branch offices.

In 1974, there was one head post-office, 31 subpost-offices and 230 branch offices, 22 post-offices having telegraph services also. In 1975-76 the number of post-offices that had the facility of public telephones had increased to 22.

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

In 1961, the population of the district numbered 13,21,578 of which 5,24,275 were workers. A study of the occupational structure of the working population reveals that 91,224 persons were engaged in miscellaneous occupations. The break-up according to the census report of 1961, is given below :

Occupation	Number
Industry	38,545
Trade and commerce	15,074
Live-stock tending, forestry, fishing and hunting and plantation raising, etc.	11,590
Personal services	7,861
Public services	6,684
Transport, storage and communication	3,433
Educational and scientific services	2,891
Construction	1,287
Medical and health services	972
Electricity, gas, water and sanitary services	570
Mining and quarrying	382
Religious and welfare services	364
Legal services	339
Recreation services	290
Business services	240
Community services and work in trade and labour associations	68
Services not classified elsewhere	19,318

In 1971, the population of the district rose to 15,31,654 and the workers numbered 4,53,292. Classification under various categories of economic activities differed from the previous arrangement, resulting in the return of a smaller number of miscellaneous workers which was 81,385. Details of workers engaged in miscellaneous occupations are obtainable in the census returns of 1971.

Public Services

With the growing responsibilities of the government towards the planned economic and social development of the country, employment opportunities under the Central and State Governments at different levels have increased considerably. Activities in the sphere of public administration under the corporations and local bodies have also assumed increased dimensions. An idea of the extent may be had from the following table :

Type of establishment	No. of reporting establishments		No. of employees	
	1972	1973	1972	1973
Central Government	2	2	1,018	977
State Government	85	90	8,030	8,140
Quasi-government (Central)	4	4	94	101
Local bodies	12	12	5,119	5,147

Persons in the above-mentioned services fall under the category of fixed-income earners who are hard hit by the ever increasing cost of living. The comparative position of Central Government employees is far better than of State Government employees or the employees of local bodies, if fringe benefits are taken into account. Dearness allowance is paid to all classes of such employees at rates varying in accordance with their salaries. Other benefits like provident fund and free medical treatment are accessible to government servants as well as employees of the local bodies.

Government servants in receipt of pay not exceeding Rs 1,000 p.m. who have been granted 60 days' earned leave or more but rejoin work after 30 days are entitled to receive full average pay plus all allowances and an additional amount equivalent to full pay plus nearly all allowances for this period. Government servants are also allowed to encash the whole or part of their earned leave. Leave rules have been revised by the government to provide more relief to temporary employees. Other benefits include granting of advances for purchase of a conveyance and construction or repair of one's house. Residential accommodation at moderate rent is made available for certain categories of government employees and a suitable house rent allowance is also paid in cases where non-governmental accommodation has to be taken on rent. A non-practising allowance is given to the medical staff holding posts which prohibit the undertaking of private practice. Government employees can form service associations or unions under the Societies Registration Act XVI of 1860, for their welfare, protection and the betterment of their service conditions. The State em-

ployees of the district have joined the State employees' joint council or the ministerial employees' association which is affiliated to the parent body at the State level. The employees of the local bodies have become members of the local authorities employees' association and the employees of the State road transport corporation joint council. These are affiliated to the apex organisation at the State level.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS

Education

In ancient and mediaeval times, education was deemed to be the exclusive concern of religious teachers and institutions and as such the *path-shalas* and *maktabs* were run mostly by Brahmanas and maulvis. In those days teaching was an act of philanthropy and consequently no regular fee was charged from the pupils. The modern system of education has gradually replaced the traditional class of village teachers by a professional class of school and college teachers. Even in modern times teaching is regarded as a noble and respectable profession and avenues of employment have opened for experienced teachers.

Since 1964, the triple benefit scheme has been in force in State-aided institutions in the district which are run by local bodies or private managements. This scheme provides facilities of contributory provident fund, compulsory life insurance and pension and family pension to teachers. Payment of salaries to the teachers of those institutions which are on the grants-in-aid list of the State Government, are made through cheques signed by the manager of the institution concerned and a nominee of the district inspector of schools, usually the associate inspector of schools. Teachers serving in government institutions are entitled to all the benefits available to other State Government employees.

Teachers' wards are entitled to get free tuition up to the intermediate class level. Needy and disabled teachers can get financial assistance from the national foundation for teachers' welfare fund and those suffering from tuberculosis can get admission to the Bhowali sanatorium where certain beds are reserved for them. Principals and heads of government higher secondary schools and government normal schools and women teachers employed in primary schools in rural areas are entitled to residential quarters. The teachers of the district have organised themselves into various associations such as the Madhyamik Shikshak Sangh constituted by the teachers of the higher secondary schools of privately managed institutions and the Prathmik Shikshak Sangh formed of teachers of the primary and junior high schools of the district. These associations are affiliated to their parent bodies at the State level. The main aims of these associations are to protect and to promote service interests of their members.

In 1961, the district had 3,067 teachers including 413 women. In 1975, the number increased to 7,782 including 973 women.

The following statement shows the number of teachers from the pre-junior Basic to the degree colleges stage working in various type of institutions belonging to the State Government, local bodies and private managements :

Type of Institution	No. of teachers		
	Male	Female	Total
Pre-junior Basic school	—	4	4
Junior Basic schools	4,052	743	4,795
Senior Basic schools	974	135	1,109
Higher secondary schools and intermediate colleges	1,538	77	1,615
Degree colleges	135	1	136
Technical institutions	110	13	123
Total	6,809	973	7,782

Medicine

Before the advent of British rule, the Ayurvedic and Unani systems of medicine were practised in the district by *vaid*s and *hakims* respectively. After the cession of the district to the British in 1794-95 the allopathic system of medicine was introduced by them and dispensaries were opened with the result that the older systems began to lose ground. In due course the homoeopathic system also came into use providing relief particularly to the less affluent sections of the population.

In 1961, there were 503 medical practitioners of all these systems of medicine and 23 nurses, 45 midwives and health visitors, 14 nursing attendants, 44 pharmacists, 7 vaccinators, 31 sanitation technicians and 2 opticians and optometrists in the district. In 1975, the various hospitals and dispensaries had 51 doctors and 179 compounders and nurses. There were 138 allopathic physicians and surgeons, 221 Ayurvedic physicians, 44 homoeopathic physicians, 19 other physicians and 3 dentists.

A branch of the Indian medical association has been established in the district. The main aims of the association are to promote and advance medical and allied services in the different branches of medicine and public health, to promote medical education and to maintain the honour and dignity of the medical profession. It had 18 members on roll in 1975.

Law

The profession attracts fresh law graduates and a few retired persons possessing a degree in law. In 1961, there were 208 legal practitioners and advisers in the district as also 5 judges and magistrates, and 20 law assistants. They had one or more *moharrirs* (clerks) depending on the size of the clientele. The State Government appoints district government counsels for criminal, civil and revenue work from among eligible legal practitioners to represent it in the district courts. To lighten their load of work some advocates are appointed as panel lawyers.

The profession of law is one of the leading, though overcrowded, professions of the district and lawyers occupy a position of respect in the social life of the community. They lead actively in almost all spheres of public activity, particularly in the social and political spheres. Most lawyers practise at the district headquarters, as the important courts are located there.

The legal practitioners of the district have organised themselves into a civil bar association and a criminal bar association at Ghazipur, which are registered bodies. The former was established in 1909 and the latter in 1926. In 1975, there were 185 members in the former and 90 members in the latter. The main aims of the associations are to consider and safeguard the interests of the legal profession, to achieve a high standard of proficiency among the members, to inspire confidence and respect for lawyers and presiding officers in the litigant public, to safeguard the rights of the citizens as guaranteed under the Constitution of India, to help in the disposal of cases and to offer suggestions for improvement in the administration of justice.

In 1975, there were 4 judges, 5 *munsif* magistrates 2 judicial magistrates and 98 pleaders and advocates in the district.

Engineering

Engineering services in the district consist of 4 branches—buildings and roads, irrigation, local self-government engineering and hydel. They have separate divisions of survey and construction. In 1961 there were 36 civil engineers, 4 mechanical engineers and one electrical engineer in the district. In 1975 the *zila parishad* had one civil engineer and 3 civil junior engineers. A large number of overseers (now called junior engineers, linemen and draftsmen) are also engaged in these branches. Several industrial establishments of the district have on their pay roll qualified engineers and diploma holders.

There were, in the district, some other learned professions to which editors, authors, writers, artists, dancers and musicians belonged. According to the census of 1961, there were five editors and journalists, 51 musicians, 14 dancers and 3 artists and writers in the district in that year.

DOMESTIC AND PERSONAL SERVICES

Domestic Servants

In the district, domestic servants are employed by those who can afford it. With the rising cost of living, people prefer to hire part-time workers for domestic work and grazing cattle, etc. They are not necessarily unskilled workers but often get lower wages as compared to other classes of labourers. Usually these persons are paid their remuneration in cash but occasionally they also receive meals, clothes and other amenities. Generally they live in slums or in out-houses provided by their employers. They have no security in their jobs and often they themselves change masters. In 1961, there were in the district 1,043 cooks, maidservants and related workers of whom 175 were cooks and cook bearers ; 812 butlers, bearers, waiters and maidservants ; and 31 ayas and nursemaids. The number of cleaners, sweepers and watermen was 1,255.

Barbers

Barbers still play a significant role in the life of the district, particularly in the villages. They have always rendered important services on religious and other occasions, such as marriages and deaths, when they are assisted by their women folk as well. Formerly they acted as go-betweens when marriage alliances were negotiated and used to visit at regular intervals the families with whom they dealt to assist them but with the changing times this system has declined particularly as the parents or the parties themselves settle the marriages and now many barbers have opened shops mostly in the towns and no longer move from house to house. Many men now also shave themselves, etc., and do not require the services of a barber. The number of hair-cutting shops is larger in the urban areas and these are manned by more than one person, the owners generally employing paid workers. Some barbers attend their customers on roadside pavements and save expenditure on an establishment. In 1961, the number of barbers, hairdressers and related workers was 2,197 of whom 169 worked in the urban areas.

Washermen

In cities and towns washermen still go from house to house collecting soiled clothes and returning them after being laundered but a washerman is no longer as familiar a figure as he was some years back, as washing and ironing charges have gone up considerably and people now prefer to do their washing at home. Laundries and dry-cleaning units are located mainly in the urban areas and are popular. Conditions in the villages have not undergone any substantial change where people do their own washing. In 1961, there were 4,565 washermen, dry-cleaners, launderers and pressers, of whom 229 worked in the urban areas.

Tailors

In urban areas tailoring is considered to be an art and needs specialised training. Big tailors employ a number of workers on daily or monthly wages for stitching and other jobs. In the rural areas the entire work of tailoring is done by a single individual—*kurtas*, shirts and pyjamas continue to be the chief items of tailored dress in rural areas. In 1961, there were 1,613 tailors, dress makers and garment makers of whom 282 lived in the urban areas.

OTHER OCCUPATIONS

Among those pursuing certain other occupations in the district in 1961, there were 749 hawkers, pedlers and street vendors ; 7,530 drawers and weavers ; 1,275 jewellers, goldsmiths and silversmiths ; 1,737 carpenters, joiners and pattern makers (wood) ; 742 bricklayers, plasterers and masons ; 227 mechanics and repairmen ; 4,346 potters and related workers in clay ; 6,577 bakers, confectioners and candy and sweetmeat makers ; 1,375 salesmen and shop assistants ; 476 fishermen and related workers ; 107 *khandsari*, sugar and *gur* makers ; 4,333 crushers and related workers ; 29 log fellers and wood cutters ; 3,436 basket weavers and related workers ; matrons, stewards (domestic and institutional) ; 175 cooks and helpers of cooks ; 307 drivers of road transport vehicles including *palki* and *doli* bearers ; 301 furnacemen and persons working in kilns ; 14 dancers and related workers ; 51 musicians and related workers ; 6 sawyers and wood-working machinists ; 81 stone cutters, stone carvers and stone dressers ; 235 ordained religious workers ; 2 plumbers and pipe fitters ; 6 jewellery engravers ; 235 knitters and lace makers ; 6 photographers and related camera operators ; 36 tobacco preparers and makers of products of tobacco ; 20 precision instrument makers, watch and clock makers and repairers ; 991 cigarette-machine operators ; 6 painters and paper hangers ; 29 bleachers, dyers and finishers ; 8 stenographers ; 20 typists ; and 455 unskilled office workers.

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

LIVELIHOOD PATTERN

Workers and Non-workers

There was no known classification of workers in the old days. By 1901 there was some attempt at distinguishing between workers and non-workers. The economic classification went on changing from 1901 which made comparison between these two groups difficult. In 1961 the percentage of workers and non-workers in the district was 39.7 and 60.3 respectively. The percentage of workers was higher than the State average of 39.1 due to greater female participation. Of the total workers in the district, cultivators and agricultural labourers comprised 78.9 per cent, followed by 8.6 of those engaged in household industry including manufacturing, 7.7 per cent in other services and 2.9 per cent in trade and commerce. In other categories the number was small, altogether accounting for 1.9 per cent. The extent of female participation was 33.1 per cent. It was high (35.1 per cent) in household industry, though the highest percentage (46.1) was for agricultural labourers.

The total rural population, 12,76,424 of the district in 1961, comprised 40.1 per cent workers, the remaining 59.9 per cent being non-workers. The corresponding percentages for the urban area were 28.8 and 71.2 respectively. Thus the proportion of workers was lower in towns than in villages. Of the total 5,11,278 workers in the rural area in 1961, cultivators and agricultural labourers were 80.6 per cent and workers engaged in non-agricultural activities 19.4 per cent. As usual there was a preponderance of non-agricultural workers in the urban areas of the district, the percentage being 89.4. The corresponding data for 1961 and 1971 are as follows :

Year	Total population	Total workers	Percentage of workers in relation to total population			
			Agricultural workers	Non-agricultural workers	Total workers	
					District	U. P.
1961	13,21,578	5,24,275	31.3	8.4	39.7	39.1
1971	15,31,654	4,53,292	24.3	5.2	29.5	30.9

The statement apparently indicates a substantial decrease in the working population indicating unemployment even amongst the already employed persons of 1961. This anomaly has arisen due to the change in the definition of 'worker' in 1971. The use of the term was so comprehensive at the 1961 census that a person doing as little as one hour's work in a day was treated as a worker. Accordingly a woman, who mostly attended to household duties, was classified as worker, even if she took food to the field, tended the cattle or did some such other work. In the census of 1971 a man or woman who was engaged permanently in household duties such as cooking for one's own household, whether helping in the family's economic activities as a part-time worker was not treated as a worker but categorised as a non-worker. This may explain the sudden decline arrived at in the number of total workers in 1971 in spite of a rise of about 15.9 per cent in the population of 1961. At the 1971 census, workers were classified in nine major categories, the bases of the classification being those economic activities which were similar in respect of process, raw materials and products. The details of the nine categories of workers in 1971 were as follows :

Number and category	Workers			Percentage in relation to total workers	Percentage in relation to total population
	Total	Male	Female		
1	2	3	4	5	6
I Cultivator	2,33,544	2,09,151	24,393	51.5	15.3
II Agricultural labourer	1,38,363	92,034	46,329	30.5	9.0
III Live-stock, forestry, fishing, hunting, plantations, orchards and allied activities	2,632	2,146	486	0.5	0.2
IV Mining and quarrying	168	152	16	0.0	0.0
V Manufacturing, processing, servicing and repairs in :					

	1	2	3	4	5	6
(a) Household industry	20,440	16,701	3,739	4.5	1.3	
(b) Other industry	7,684	6,279	1,405	1.8	0.5	
VI Construction	1,361	1,077	284	0.3	0.1	
VII Trade and commerce	14,076	13,135	941	3.1	0.9	
VIII Transport, storage and communications	2,284	2,200	84	0.5	0.1	
IX Other services	32,740	28,369	4,371	7.3	2.1	
Total workers	4,53,292	3,71,244	82,048	100.0	29.5	
Non-workers	10,78,362	4,03,372	6,74,990	—	70.5	
Total population	15,31,654	7,74,616	7,57,038	—	100.0	

As will be observed, all the non-workers have been grouped together in a single class though they were classified at the census in the following categories :

- (a) Full-time students
- (b) Those attending to household duties
- (c) Dependents and infants
- (d) Retired persons and rentiers
- (e) Persons of independent means
- (f) Beggars and vagrants
- (g) Inmates of penal, mental and charitable institutions
- (h) Others

GENERAL LEVEL OF PRICES AND WAGES*

Prices

From 1800 to 1820 or so wheat sold at 40 maunds and barley at double that quantity for a rupee. By 1857 the value of agricultural produce had increased. From 1857 to 1860 the average rates per rupee were 17.36 seers of wheat, 25 of barley, 21.72 of gram, 21.72 of *bajra*,

*Where actual data are wanting, approximates or those obtaining in neighbouring areas have been mentioned to indicate trends

23·86 of jowar and 12·69 of common rice. The ensuing ten years were characterised by several bad seasons, notably those of 1860, 1861 and 1865 and in 1868-1869, because of early stoppage of the monsoon, prices rose to a great height and the poorer sections of the people were very badly hit.

The famine of 1873-74 caused distress in the whole district specially in the rice tracts where people suffered badly, though prices did not touch famine limits. In 1877-78 there was a widespread famine, the economic situation becoming abnormal at its commencement on account of the export of unusual amounts of grain to Europe, Madras and Bombay. The average rates from 1871 to 1911 are given in the following statement :

Decade/period	Average rates (in seers per rupee)			
	Wheat	Rice	Gram	Jowar
1861-70	16·54	13·63	21·32	23·01
1871-80	16·34	15·27	21·94	22·66
1881-90	17·56	14·72	24·08	24·07
1891-1900	12·62	11·69	17·28	16·84
1901-1905	13·19	11·74	19·01	19·72
1911	13·06	10·44	18·56	14·12

In 1886 a general rise took place throughout India and prices reached a level previously unknown except in times of famine but the growing dearth of food-grains was not ascribed to bad seasons. The cause was probably found in the synchronous action of improved communications, the development of the export trade and the fall in the value of silver. The effect of the rise became more apparent in the next ten years when famine visited most parts of India. Thereafter a succession of good harvests resulted in the return of normal conditions but the rates did not regain the level of 1886. In 1896 there was an abnormal rise in prices (due to the famine that was rife in other parts) particularly in the case of rice as the crop was lost due to the scanty rainfall in about 90,000 acres (in the district).

With the outbreak of the First World War in 1914, a series of changes in prices, including a considerable rise in the cost of food-grains, was witnessed in the succeeding years, prices rising per rupee to 4 seers for wheat, 6 seers for barley, 3 for rice and 7·5 for jowar in the latter half of

the decade 1911 to 1920. The price level in the district, as compared to that of 1911, was higher by 43 per cent in 1916 and by 107 per cent in 1928.

The worldwide economic depression commenced in 1930 and continued with greater severity in the years that followed. Consequently from 1930-31, the rates registered a downward trend and the price level in 1934 went down by about 44 per cent and 19 per cent as compared with the levels of 1928 and 1916 respectively. Prices remained low till the end of the first half of 1936 when they began to become stabilized, becoming steady in 1937, at a level higher than that of 1936. By 1939 prices registered a rise of nearly 34 per cent over those prevailing in 1934.

After the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939 there was a steep rise in prices largely due to speculation and profiteering. Other factors, like the holding back of stocks in anticipation of further shortages, contributed in no small measure in maintaining and even advancing the high level reached in prices. At the beginning of 1940 price control measures, which had been put into operation on the outbreak of the war, were vigorously enforced by the district authorities. The measures included the fixation of prices (which were modified from time to time), the institution of prosecution to check profiteering and the licensing of food-grain dealers. Even then the prices continued to go up and registered a rise of about 158 per cent over those of 1939. It was experienced that an effective control of prices was not possible without a corresponding check on supplies. Therefore, during 1943-52, different rationing systems—partial rationing, a hundred per cent rationing and total rationing—were imposed at different periods in the town of Ghazipur, where there was total rationing, wheat being sold at about 1·5 seers for a rupee in 1947.

All rationing systems were withdrawn throughout the State from the middle of 1952 but food-grains continued to be issued to ration card-holders by licensed dealers to arrest any rising trend in prices. The prices per kg. were in the vicinity of Re 0·45 for wheat, Re 0·37 for gram and Re 0·64 for rice. Towards the end of 1953, prices tended to come down a little. The normal forces of demand and supply once again started to operate. Neither was the cultivator sure of getting a fixed minimum price for his produce nor was the trader of his commission. The nervousness of both led to a further decline in prices. This was a countrywide trend, which required to be checked to stabilize the economy and sustain the growth of agriculture. The government, therefore, took measures in 1953-54, when wheat was being sold at the rate of about Re 0·35 per kg. to support agricultural prices and the results were

conducive to more production. The prices then began to move. The approximate prices for certain years from 1960 to 1974 are given in the following statement :

Year	Average yearly retail price in Rs per kg.		
	Wheat	Gram	Rice
1960	0.44	0.41	0.60
1971	0.95	0.95	1.35
1972	1.10	1.20	1.20
1973	1.50	2.00	1.75
1974	1.85	2.25	2.50

The retail prices in the headquarters town for certain commodities in 1970 and 1974 were as follows :

Commodity	Prices in Rs per kg.	
	1970	1974
Gur	0.75	1.75
Sugar	1.85	3.75
Mustard oil	8.50	10.50
Ghee	—	18.00
Firewood	0.10	0.15
Kerosene oil (per litre)	0.75	1.20

Wages

In olden times payment for agricultural labour was generally made in kind—mostly in grain, the amount given being fixed by custom and its money value depending on the state of the market but there are no records available to show what the level of wages was. During the fifty years ended 1900, a considerable rise took place in cash wages but the rates even then were very low, as in other neighbouring districts. An enquiry made in 1906 showed that the cash wage of an ordinary, unskilled labourer was 7 or 8 pice a day which was almost the same as the cash value of the payment made in grain. Ploughmen and reapers received either 2 annas for a day's labour or, if paid in kind, the former got 2 seers of grain and the latter from one twentieth to one sixteenth of the crop reaped. Weeders got 1 pice or one seer daily. Common artisans earned about 4 annas a day but skilled workers were paid according to their ability. Higher rates prevailed in the city than in the rural tracts, as in every district.

The first wage census was carried out in the State in 1906. The results of the survey made at that time and in certain succeeding years are tabulated below :

Year	Wages (in Rs per day)	
	Unskilled labour	Skilled labour
1911	0.10	0.32
1916	0.16	0.32
1928	0.35	0.56
1934	0.22	0.38
1939	0.22	0.38
1944	0.51	0.95

After the First World War, a marked general rise in wages occurred as was revealed by the wage census of 1928. The year 1930 was one of worldwide economic depression which was reflected in the census of 1934. After that wages began to mount. The steep rise in 1944 was attributed to the outbreak of the War in 1939. Wages continued to move upward as shown in the following statement :

Year	Wages (in Rs per day)	
	Unskilled labour	Skilled labour
1957	1.12	1.62
1960	1.25	—
1965	1.75	3.48
1970	2.00	5.50
1974	4.75	7.00

In 1974, the wages for various agricultural occupations such as weeding, reaping, ploughing, etc., were about Rs 3.50 per day for eight working hours.

The approximate average wages paid to workers at the district headquarters at the end of 1974 for certain occupations were as follows :

Occupation	Unit of quotation	Wages (in Rs)
Gardener	Per month (part-time)	20.00
Herdsmen	Per head of cattle per month	10.00
Casual labourer	Per day	5.00
Domestic servant	Per month with food	15.00
Carpenter	Per day	10.00
Midwife	Per child	10.00
Barber	Per shave	0.30
	Per hair-cut	1.00
Scavenger	Per month for a house with one latrine for one cleaning per day	1.00
Motor driver	Per month	400.00
Truck driver	Per month	450.00

GENERAL LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT

Employment Trends

In recent years there has been a considerable increase in the number of persons employed in the public sector though in the private sector the increase was not always steady. The statement that follows sets out the data relating to those establishments which employed more than five persons and were the subject of an enquiry conducted by the district employment exchange authorities :

Year	No. of establishments			No. of employees		
	Private sector	Public sector	Total	Private sector	Public sector	Total
1970	91	108	199	2,878	12,738	15,616
1971	120	103	223	3,032	13,061	16,093
1972	92	110	202	2,742	13,782	16,524
1973	92	108	200	2,847	14,635	17,482
1974	96	128	224	3,025	15,388	18,413

The number of persons employed during the last two years mentioned in the foregoing statement has been classified further (according to the work done) in the following manner :

Activity	No. of reporting establishments		No. of employees					
			1973			1974		
	1973	1974	Private sector	Public sector	Total	Private sector	Public sector	Total
Agriculture, live-stock development, forestry, fishing and hunting	5	0	—	1,461	1,461	16	1,443	1,459
Manufacturing	12	10	112	—	112	73	10	83
Construction	12	14	20	1,510	1,530	—	1,769	1,769
Electricity, gas, water and sanitary services	2	4	—	640	640	—	766	766
Trade & commerce	13	24	280	101	381	242	178	420
Services (public, legal, medical, etc.)	156	166	2,435	10,923	13,358	2,694	11,222	13,916
Total	200	224	2,847	14,635	17,482	3,025	15,388	18,413

Employment of Women

The extent of employment of women workers is indicated by the following statement which gives their number in the private and public sectors during the quarter ended December, 1975 :

No. of reporting establishments	53
No. of women employees in public sector	1,118
No. of women employees in private sector	48
Total number of women employees	1,166
Percentage of women employees in private sector in relation to total employees in that sector	1.58
Percentage of women employees in public sector in relation to total employees in that sector	7.26

The proportion of women workers in different spheres in the same quarter was as follows :

Sphere	Percentage
Education	63.38
Medical and public health	28.81
Manufacturing	0.42
Various other services	7.39

Unemployment Trends

The educational standards of men and women who registered for employment during the year 1974 were as follows :

Educational standard	Men	Women	Total
Post-graduate	149	3	152
Graduate	991	31	1,022
Intermediate	2,202	29	2,231
Matriculate	2,276	22	2,298

During the quarter ended December, 1974, the employment exchange was required to recommend candidates for 125 posts for which the Central Government needed 30 candidates, the State Government 75, local bodies and the private sector 18.

The district experienced a shortage of stenographers (for English) and trained women teachers belonging to the Scheduled Castes. There was ■ surplus of persons having educational qualification up to the intermediate stage, technicians with industrial technical institute certificates and diplomas and also those with some experience in their own line.

Employment Exchange

The district employment exchange at Ghazipur was established in 1960 to provide job assistance to the unemployed and the employers of the district. The following statement gives an idea of the assistance rendered by the employment exchange during 1970-74 :

Year	Vacancies notified by employers	No. of persons registered for employment	No. on 'live register'	No. of persons provided with employment
1970	1,267	11,470	6,394	—
1971	1,210	10,228	5,858	—
1972	1,127	12,891	10,883	—
1973	1,094	12,537	12,803	—
1974	704	10,965	11,629	661

The employment market information scheme has been functioning in the exchange since 1962. Under this scheme an intensive study is carried out to ascertain the number of persons employed, vacancies which fell vacant, the types of jobs for which qualified candidates were not available and other allied information (during the quarter) in public undertakings and some selected private enterprises.

NATIONAL PLANNING AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

The subject of national planning and rural development received little attention during British times and the few steps that were taken to recondition village economy and society were mostly conciliatory in nature and largely motivated by political expediency. They consisted mostly of improvement in sanitation, expansion of agriculture and extension of

irrigational facilities. When the first popular (Indian) government came into office in 1937, a scheme for rural development was adopted in certain villages of the district. It was later expanded gradually and a rural development association was formed at the district level. The functions of the association, which had a non-official chairman and a subdivisional magistrate as secretary, were more or less advisory in nature. They covered rural hygiene, construction of roads and panchayat *ghars* (houses), holding of night classes for adults and allied developmental activities. With the Congress government going out of office in 1939, the rural development programme suffered heavily. In 1946 the rural development department was merged in the co-operative department and the rural development association was replaced by the district development association with a non-official as chairman and the district co-operative officer as secretary. In 1951 the district planning committee, with the district magistrate as chairman and the district planning officer as secretary, replaced the district development association. It had a number of sub-committees for the preparation and execution of the Five-year Plan schemes and projects. Its role continued to be advisory. The development blocks were the units of operation into which the district was divided for the implementation of the Plan programmes of each department.

The First Five-year Plan started functioning from April, 1951, with the main objective of raising the standard of living of the people and for making available to them opportunities of a prosperous, fuller and more varied life. It was largely a collection of departmental programmes. In the wake of the problems created by the partition of India in 1947, emphasis was placed on agriculture, irrigation and transport. Consequently efforts were made to improve agricultural practices and to develop the village community through national extension service schemes and the people's participation in different activities. Earthwork on buildings and village roads, digging of soakage pits, etc., was done by voluntary labour (*shramdan*). Improved methods of agriculture and the use of compost were also introduced and tube-wells and other means of irrigation were augmented.

Qasimabad, in tahsil Muhammadabad, was the first community development block of the district. It was opened in October, 1952, followed by Ghazipur in October, 1954 and Deokali in January, 1955.

The scope of the Second Five-year Plan (1956-61) was enlarged to include industrialisation with the stress on the development of heavy industries and on the enlargement of the scope of the public sector. The aim was to increase the national income by 25 per cent and to reduce unemployment. In the field of agriculture, schemes relating to the Japanese method of paddy cultivation, the U. P. method of wheat cultivation, expansion and

training in the use of agricultural implements and in the use of chemical and green manures were taken up. The district was divided into 16 development blocks for the implementation of the Five-year Plan schemes.

In 1958, the Antarim Zila Parishad which was the precursor of the Zila Parishad, was formed by amalgamating the district planning committee and the district board. For the co-ordinated execution of the different plan schemes the resources of agriculture, co-operatives, animal husbandry, the panchayat raj and some other departments like health, plant protection, etc., (called the Plan departments) were pooled and put under the control of the district planning officer.

During the Third Plan period (1961-66) a three-tier structure of rural self-governing bodies was set up from December 1, 1963, to ensure the people's participation in the implementation of the planning and development programmes. These three bodies are the village panchayat which functions at village level, the *kshettra samiti* which operates at block level and the Zila Parishad which is at district level. The district has 16 development blocks, all in post stage II. Some other details about these blocks are given below :

Tahsil	Name of block	Date of inauguration	Number of		Population (as in 1971)
			Gaon Sabhas	Nyaya panchayats	
Ghazipur	Ghazipur	2-10-54	80	13	83,258
"	Mardah	1-4-56	66	11	18,854
"	Karanda	1-4-62	55	11	62,391
"	Birano	1-10-62	59	10	15,421
Muhamma-dabad	Qasimabad	1-10-52	107	16	23,112
"	Muhammada-bad	1-4-58	100	13	20,393
"	Bhanwarkole (Sukhdehra)*	1-10-60	72	10	17,304
"	Barachawar	1-10-62	89	13	20,149
Saidpur	Deokali	26-1-55	99	12	19,930
"	Saidpur	1-7-57	117	15	24,815
"	Manihari	1-4-59	99	14	23,986
"	Jakhania	1-4-61	93	12	20,411
"	Sadat	1-4-61	90	13	21,917
Zamania	Zamania	2-10-56	72	14	32,086
"	Bhadaura	2-10-59	35	7	23,670
"	Reotipur	1-4-62	47	9	20,231

*Headquarters of the development block

The Third Five-year Plan was conceived as the first stage of a decade or more of intensive development leading to a self-reliant and self-generating economy. It sought to ensure a minimum level of living for every family. While narrowing economic and social disparities, some special programmes, such as those for the propagation of the use of improved varieties of seeds (particularly dwarf varieties), intensive methods of wheat and paddy cultivation and crop protection measures, were taken in hand. In 1962 the economy of the country became so strained that the process of planning and development slowed down considerably during this Plan period.

The next three years—from April, 1966, to March, 1969, did not form part of the next Five-year Plan. Yearly Plans for these three years were, therefore, formulated with the following broad objectives :

- (i) A growth-rate of 5 per cent in the agricultural sector and 9 to 10 per cent in industry
- (ii) An annual growth-rate of 6·9 per cent in production of food-grains to achieve self-sufficiency
- (iii) To maximise employment opportunities
- (iv) To redress imbalances arising from a high rate in the growth of population and inadequate expansion in agricultural production by reducing the fertility rate of the population to 25 per thousand in the shortest possible time

The Fourth Five-year Plan period (1969-74) defined more precisely the wider and deeper social values and its desiderata was that the structure of socio-economic relations should be so planned as to result not only in an appreciable increase in the national income and employment but also in greater equality in incomes and wealth. It sought to enlarge the income of the rural population and to achieve self-reliance in agriculture and industry. Consequently new small-scale industrial units were established in the district in addition to increased facilities for sanitation, transport and health services with special emphasis on improving the condition of the backward classes and the grant of subsidies to them for starting small crafts and cottage industries.

The removal of poverty and the attainment of economic self-reliance have been defined as the two basic objectives of the Fifth Five-year Plan, expansion of employment opportunities also being envisaged to receive the highest priorities.

The Plan programmes of the district are an integral part of the State Plan and they have broadly the same priorities. In brief the implementation of the various development Plan schemes has helped in bringing about an appreciable growth in agricultural production, power generation and consumption, industrial development, irrigation and road transport. The planned efforts have also resulted in raising somewhat the standard of living, providing better wages and living conditions and helping the general economic growth of the district.



CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

The district of Ghazipur forms part of the Varanasi Division which is one of the eleven administrative units into which the State of Uttar Pradesh is divided. The Division consists of five districts—Varanasi, Mirzapur, Jaunpur, Ghazipur and Ballia. A commissioner holds charge of the Division with his headquarters at Varanasi. For the purpose of general administration the district of Ghazipur is divided into four subdivisions namely Saidpur, Muhammadabad, Zamania and Ghazipur.

Commissioner

This officer is the link between the districts under him and the government and is responsible for orderly administration in the Division as well as for the planned development of the districts in the Division. He controls, guides and advises the district and regional level officers, solves inter-departmental problems and assesses the work of the officers of the various departments. On the appellate side, his jurisdiction extends to hearing of appeals and revisions under the U.P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1950, and other enactments such as the Indian Arms Act, 1962, etc. He is also the chairman of the regional transport authority. He has extensive powers of supervision of the Zila Parishads, municipal boards and other local bodies. In all important matters, the district magistrates have to address government through him or have to keep him concurrently informed. As appellate work here is heavy, the commissioner is assisted by an additional commissioner.

District Staff

The district is under the charge of the district officer, who is a member of the Indian administrative service or occasionally an officer of the provincial civil service. Under the Code of Criminal Procedure he is designated magistrate and as head of the revenue administration he is known as the collector.

As a magistrate he exercises the powers specified under the Code of Criminal Procedure and various special Acts. He is the highest authority responsible for the maintenance of law and order in the district, in which he is helped by the district police. He has to keep a close watch on investigations and prosecution of criminal cases and also on the release of prisoners from the district jail. Appraisal of public opinion and avoidance of explosive situations are some of the important duties assigned to him as a district magistrate.

As a collector he is responsible for the recovery of land revenue and other governmental dues and the maintenance of up-to-date records of rights in the land. He is also responsible for the survey, record operations, settlement, consolidation, resumption and acquisition of land, the rehabilitation of displaced persons and distribution of relief in calamitous times of droughts, floods, hail-storms, locust invasions, etc.

The district officer also heads the department of food and civil supplies and is responsible for the equitable distribution of food-grains and other essential commodities with the help of the district supply officer who works under him. He is ex-officio district election officer and president of the district soldiers', sailors' and airmen's board which looks after the welfare of ex-servicemen as well as the families of the serving soldiers of the district.

He has to keep a vigilant eye on the development and planning activities going on in his district. In this sphere he is assisted by the district planning officer who is placed in charge of the planning and development activities of the district. There are also an additional district magistrate (ceilling) and two extra magistrates in the district.

The district officer is also assisted by four subdivisional officers, one for each subdivision (residing in their respective tahsils) who perform duties similar to those of the district officer but within their own jurisdictions.

For the purpose of the realisation and collection of revenue the district is divided into four tahsils—those of Ghazipur, Muhammadabad, Saidpur and Zamania. The Ghazipur tahsil comprises the parganas of Ghazipur, Karanda and Pachotar ; the Muhammadabad tahsil those of Muhammada-bad, Zahurabad and Deha ; the Saidpur tahsil comprises those of Saidpur, Shadiabad, Bahariabad and Khanpur ; and the Zamania tahsil that of Zamania only. Each tahsil is in the immediate charge of a resident tahsildar, who is an officer of gazetted rank. He acts as an assistant collector and presides over his tahsil office and court. The tahsildar has a long list of duties, the chief of which are timely collection of land revenue and other dues and the maintenance of land records. He is also called out for calamity relief duties when necessary. Each tahsildar is also the subtreasury officer of the tahsil subtreasury. The tahsils are further subdivided into parganas and *lekhpal* circles, the former being headed by a supervisor *kanungo* and the latter by a *lekhpal*, their number being 18 and 387 respectively. There are in addition four registrar *kanungos* and 22 assistant registrar *kanungos* in the district.

The superintendent of police is the executive head of the district police force. He is responsible for the efficiency and discipline of the police force and for the maintenance of peace in the district. He is assisted by a number of deputy superintendents of police and other police staff. This subject is dealt with in detail in Chapter XII.

The judicial organisation of the district is headed by the district and sessions judge with his headquarters at Ghazipur under the jurisdiction of the high court at Allahabad.

He is the highest authority for the administration of justice in civil and criminal matters. Appeals against his orders lie to the high court. He was also the district registrar and exercised powers vested under the Indian Registration Act, 1908, but the recent change by the government has conferred powers of the district registrar on an additional district magistrate. He is assisted by four subregistrars who reside at their tahsil headquarters.

Other District Level Officers

The following are the district level officers, each being responsible to his head of department, their designations giving clues to the nature of the work done :

Executive engineer, public works department
Assistant registrar, co-operative societies
Assistant settlement officer (consolidation)
District Basic *shiksha adhikari*
Chief medical officer
Deputy director of industries
District agriculture officer
District horticulture officer
District cane officer
District employment officer
District Harijan and social welfare officer
District industries officer
District inspector of schools
District live-stock officer
District saving's officer
District planning officer
District Panchayat raj officer
District project officer
District probation officer
District reformation officer
District statistics officer
District supply officer
Executive engineer, hydel
Executive engineer, Ganga bridge corporation

Executive engineer, tube-wells
Executive engineer, lift irrigation
Executive engineer, (*Jal nlgam*)
Executive engineer, irrigation
Treasury officer
Soil conservation officer
Sales tax officer
Superintendent district jail

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT OFFICES

Income-tax Department

For collection of income-tax the district falls under the administrative control of the income-tax officer, Jaunpur.

Central Excise Department

The district is famous for the cultivation of the white or opium poppy. It has an old opium factory which is controlled by the narcotics assistant commissioner. For the purpose of assessment the district of Ghazipur has been divided into two ranges, each under a range officer, one of whom is located at Muhammadabad (Yusufpur) having jurisdiction of the Muhammadabad tahsil only and the other at Ghazipur having jurisdiction over the rest of the three tahsils, namely Ghazipur, Saidpur and Zamania. The supervisory officer is designated assistant circle officer with headquarters at Varanasi. The following excisable commodities are dealt with within the district : tobacco, cotton fabric, *khandsarl*, matches, metal containers and gold.

Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department

There is a superintendent of post-offices who looks after the post and telegraph work in the district. The district has 20 subpost-offices and 241 branch post-offices in the rural areas. In the urban areas there are a head post-office, 15 subpost-offices and a branch post-office.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Fiscal History

Details regarding the fiscal history of the district in ancient times are not forthcoming but it is likely that the same system that prevailed in other parts of northern India also prevailed in this region. The Hindu kings claimed ownership in the land and realised about one-sixth of the produce direct from the cultivators. In return they were expected to provide peace and security for their subjects. The early Muslim sultans of Delhi seem more or less to have continued this system in this area except that perhaps the proportion of the revenue (as compared to the total produce) was increased later and a Muslim governor was appointed in the Varanasi region. For the greater part of the fifteenth century this region was included in the Sharqi kingdom of Jaunpur. In 1494, Sikandar Lodi, the sultan of Delhi, assigned the region covered by the present district to Nasir Khan, one of his nobles, who is said to have administered the district for a long time.¹ It therefore appears that the agrarian system of the district (as of other regions) was based on assignments. Sher Shah acquired the whole region including this district and it is possible that his early experiments in land reforms and the revenue system were in the parts which formed a nucleus of his original jagir.

During the reign of Akbar, Ghazipur became a part of the Mughal empire and the system of collecting the revenue was similar to that which prevailed elsewhere. Ghazipur during this period was the capital of a sarkar in the subah of Allahabad. This sarkar contained 19 *mahals*. The *Ain-i-Akbari* affords a considerable amount of information as to the condition of the district at that time, showing the state of cultivation, the revenue and the principal landholders of each *mahal*. The *mahal* of Ghazipur Haveli then had a cultivated area of 12,325 bighas assessed at 5,70,350 dams. The zamindars were Kayasthas and Rajputs, and the military contingent was 10 horse and 20 foot. Pachotar was a Rajput *mahal*, with 13,679 bighas under tillage and a revenue of 6,98,204 dams, supplying 50 horse and 2,000 foot. Rajputs also held Bahriabad, another *mahal*, which had 6,984 bighas of cultivation and paid 3,55,340 dams, the contingent being 200 foot. The *mahal* of Zahurabad contained 13,803 bighas, paying 6,57,808 dams as revenue; it was held by Brahmanas, who contributed 20 horse and 500 foot. Dehma was a small Rajput *mahal*

1. Nevill, H. R. : *Ghazipur, A Gazetteer*, (Allahabad, 1909) p. 160

with 2,809 bighas of tillage and paid 1,28,815 dams as revenue, the local levies being 50 foot. Muhammadabad Parharbari (as it was then styled) had 44,775 bighas under cultivation and paid 22,60,707 dams as revenue. The landholders were Brahmanas and were termed Bhuinhars. The military levy consisted of 100 horse and 2,000 foot.

The *mahal* of Zamania was known by the name of Madan Banares.¹ It was held by Brahmanas (Bhuinhars) who paid 27,60,000 dams as revenue on 66,548 bighas of cultivation and furnished 50 horse and 5,000 foot. Karanda was then a Rajput estate, the area being 6,261 bighas, the revenue 2,93,551 dams and the military force 300 foot. The *mahal* of Saidpur Namdi had a cultivated area of 25,721 bighas of land and was assessed at 12,50,280 dams, the Brahmana zamindars contributing 20 horse and 1,000 foot. There was also a small *mahal* called Balaich or Baraich (which probably took its name from the village of Baraich on the Gangi—there was till 1840 a Taluqa so called comprising 17 villages to the west of Ghazipur) which had 2,256 bighas of cultivation and paid 1,12,461 dams as revenue.

Of the remaining *mahals* Shadiabad, Bhitri and Khanpur belonged to the sirkar of Jaunpur. The first had 30,848 bighas under tillage and was assessed at a revenue of 17,00,742 dams, the Rajput owners supplying 10 horse and 400 foot. Khanpur, again, was a Rajput *mahal* with 6,629 bighas and a revenue of 3,06,020 dams, the contingent being 150 foot. The *mahal* of Bhitri was held by Ansari Sheikhs who paid 8,44,357 dams as revenue on 17,703 bighas under tillage, the local levies amounting to 10 horse and 100 foot. The *mahal* of Mahaich was part of the Chunar sirkar, and was probably held by the Gaharwars, though no landowners are mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari*; the cultivated area was 7,950 bighas and the revenue 3,90,609 dams.

The most noticeable points with regard to these figures are the small area cultivated and the heavy though surprisingly even incidence of the revenue demand. The settlement was made directly with the cultivators and the zamindars were those who not only held but actually tilled the land. The area then under the plough was 1,39,803 acres and the revenue was Rs 3,10,117, exclusive of Rs 3,238 on *suyurghal* (cesses) or assignments for religious, charitable and other purposes.

Akbar improved upon Sher Shah's system of revenue administration. The principles on which the system was based were broadly the correct measurement of land and of the cultivated area, the classification of the soil, the calculation of the average yield and the assessment of the revenue

1. *Ibid.*, p. 165

in terms of the average price of the produce. The revenue could be paid either in cash or in kind at the option of the payer and it was ordinarily one-third of the produce.¹

This system continued till about the close of the first quarter of the eighteenth century when Saadat Khan, the first nawab vizir, settled down in Avadh as a semi-independent ruler. The sirkars of Varanasi, Jaunpur and Ghazipur were surrendered to him by Murtaza Khan (to whom the charge of these districts had been given soon after Farrukhsiyar's death in 1719) for an annual payment of seven lakhs of rupees. Saadat Khan in his turn leased the charge to Mir Rustam Ali for eight lakhs of rupees annually, who retained it till 1738, but being indolent by nature he relied largely on Mansa Ram, one of his officers, who was a zamindar of Thitharia in Varanasi. Mansa Ram became the virtual ruler of these three sirkars, obtaining them in 1739 for himself (in the name of his son, Balwant Singh). After his death Balwant Singh obtained a sanad from the emperor conferring on him the title of raja but the lease of Ghazipur was conferred on Abdullah, the son of a zamindar named Muhammad Qasim (a Siddiqi Sheikh of Dharwara in pargana Zahurabad). After Abdullah's death in 1744, a quarrel arose among his sons leading to the interference of the nawab vizir who entrusted the administration of the revenue to Balwant Singh for an annual revenue of eight lakhs of rupees.¹ Under him the district enjoyed a period of exceptional prosperity as a result of the suppression of the great zamindars and their replacement by *amils* or revenue collectors.

In 1775, Asaf-ud-daula (the nawab of Avadh) ceded the province of Banares to the East India Company. But for many years the management was left to the raja of Banares and his agents. The policy of the raja had been to eject the old Rajput chieftains and the Muslim zamindars of the parganas and to appoint *amils* on annual leases, who took engagements direct from the cultivators and contracted with the raja for a lump payment on account of each pargana or group of parganas. This system, known variously as *kachcha*, *kham*, *khas* or *amani*, being almost universally adopted in Ghazipur. The collection of revenue had become a difficult matter as the number of zamindars was very great and it was not till 1787 that the situation was controlled when Lord Cornwallis appointed Jonathan Duncan as Resident of the district in July of that year. The fiscal history of the district in British times begins from 1788-89 when Duncan conducted a preliminary revenue Settlement of the district.

Settlement of 1788-89

The main feature of Duncan's Settlement was that instead of putting the parganas to auction, as had been the practice, he ascertained the

1. Moroland, W. H. : *The Agrarian System of Moslem India*, pp. 85-86

revenue payable by each village in the pargana. The aggregate assessment of the component *mahals* was taken as the demand. The *amils* were made to adhere to the rules issued for their instruction and to confine themselves strictly to the rates of 1779. Under this Settlement the revenue demand was fixed at Rs 7,70,124 exclusive of the jagirs of Saidpur and Bahriabad.

Permanent Settlement

In October, 1789, it was ordered that the Settlement was to be made for ten years, beginning with 1789-90. The difficulty which was caused by the five-year leases was surmounted by making village Settlement with the zamindars. The short term was adopted in the district for the pargana of Zamania, Zahurabad, Pachotar, Shadiabad and Mahaich, which were either in a backward state or else had caused trouble on account of the absence of recognised proprietors. The principle adopted in this Settlement was of the highest importance, for it marked the creation of proprietary right, the *amils* no longer remaining the farmers of the revenue but becoming merely its collectors. The next step was to extend the four-year leases for an additional period of six years, so as to bring the whole province in line and this was effected in 1792. In 1792, the assessment was made perpetual and eventually it was made permanent for all time with effect from March 27, 1795, the forms of this arrangement being set forth in Regulations I, II and XXVII of 1795. The total revenue of the district was fixed at Rs 8,08,640.

The previous Settlement had many defects such as absence of the records of proprietary rights, etc. The need for remedial measures was emphasised by the frequency of riots and agrarian disputes especially in the matter of undetermined boundaries; and the increasing volume of litigation was one of the causes which led to the formation of the Ghazipur district. During the first ten years of its separate existence, the revenue was considerably enhanced by the resumption of invalid jagirs and the assessment of alluvial accretions under Regulation II of 1819. The enactment of Regulation VII of 1822 had little direct effect on this district but it formed the basis for the assessment of pargana Saidpur between 1828 and 1832. The Settlement of district Ghazipur was conducted in 1834 for a period of twenty years but it was made perpetual in 1839. The same Regulation VII of 1822 had already been employed for the Settlement of an estate of 251 villages, comprising 69,154 acres, in the parganas of Shadiabad, Pachotar, Zahurabad and Bhadaon. They represented villages in which zamindars had refused to engage and which were consequently farmed to one Manu Singh for Rs 42,430, a lease being given to him for life. In 1822, the lease was transferred to Alrakh Singh who held the estate till his death in 1830. In 1835, the revenue of this estate was fixed at Rs 58,176 with effect from 1836-37.

Revision of 1840

These revenue Settlements had been accompanied with the preparation of a complete record-of-rights and it now remained to undertake a similar task in the rest of the district under Regulation IX of 1833. Accordingly, in 1839, revision was made which was intended to effect the demarcation of boundaries and a general survey, the compilation of a record-of-rights for each village, the resumption and assessment of revenue-free lands held on insufficient title, the assessment of unsettled and newly alluviated lands and the revision of Settlement in certain estates declared open to revenue Settlements. The first work to be undertaken was the demarcation of boundaries, which was carried on simultaneously with a professional survey. The revision was carried out rapidly and was completed in 1842. The most important part of the task was the definition of co-sharers' rights which could be done only with the consent of zamindars but the 81 cases of refusals were dealt with in 1847. In the assessment of lands which had been omitted from the permanent Settlement or which had been farmed out (the two together amounting to about one-fourth of the whole district) recourse was had to comparison of the prevailing revenue rates in adjacent and similar land and this formed the chief guide for the determination of the demand, alluvial accretions being settled on their merits. The revision resulted in a considerable addition to the revenue. With the completion of revisional operations the revenue for the district stood at Rs 10,35,713 which included the demand for Saidpur and Bahriabad.

Revision of 1863

The revision proved a boon to the government as the definition of co-sharers' rights facilitated the collection of the revenue. But as the records were often hurriedly prepared and displayed many inaccuracies due to the negligence of the *patwaris* in compiling the annual returns, the government appointed a deputy collector in 1863 to test the papers, which were to be prepared and attested by the zamindars. The latter were required either to undertake the work of compiling the village records themselves or else to bear the cost, to which the majority of zamindars objected. Their opposition was at length overcome but the results were not satisfactory as the work was done in a perfunctory manner without checking the entries, so that the undertaking was abandoned in 1867 and the money paid by the zamindars was refunded.

Revision of 1878-85

The work of the revision of records and a cadastral survey was begun in Zamania. The first proceeding in 1878 was the demarcation of boun-

daries, which was completed by 1879-80 and this was followed by the survey which was finished in 1881-82, the Settlement being finally closed in April, 1885. There was an immense amount of litigation apart from partition work, which was carried on by the ordinary district staff. The difficulty of the revision, arising from the complexity of tenures and the inaccuracy of the old records, rendered the process long and costly, the total expenditure amounting to Rs 2,53,348. The revenue showed a slight decrease, the total being Rs 10,32,697. After 1840, there were certain changes of area and the transfer to the Ballia district of the Dhaka *tappa*, involving a loss of Rs 16,684, but the resumption of jagir and revenue-free plots brought in Rs 14,958 and the assessment of new alluvium Rs 9,324, Rs 3,076 being derived from other sources, so that in spite of the decrease in the area the revenue increased.

In 1906-07 the revenue demand stood at Rs 10,25,075 gross and Rs 10,14,048 net, these amounts including the assessment of the temporarily settled *mahals* which were 120 in number and were dealt with under the ordinary rules. The jagirs were originally rent-free grants of lands given as remuneration to the village chowkidars, whom the landholders were bound to support under the terms of the permanent Settlement. Government reserved to itself the right of resuming these grants and assessing them to revenue under Regulation I of 1793 but the system remained generally in force till 1871, when a cash wage was substituted for the grants, which were in many cases inadequate and had caused much trouble. The assessment of such lands amounted to Rs 14,570.

In 1937, the first Congress ministry took over the government of the province and passed the U.P. Tenancy Act, 1939 (Act XVII of 1939), by which the tenants' rights in their holdings were made hereditary and the fear of enhancement of rent (except at the time of Settlement) was largely set at rest. The tenants were also given the right to make improvements in their lands. This security of tenure and fixity of fair rent was an important step in the amelioration of the lot of the tenants of the district as elsewhere in the State.

Despite the protection extended to the tenants in the Act, as long as the system of intermediaries for the collection of revenue from the cultivators remained in existence, the latter's lot could hardly be improved. Therefore, in 1946, when the Congress resumed office, a committee for the abolition of the zamindari system was formed. According to the data collected by the committee there were in 1945 (1353 *fasli*), 3,61,668 persons cultivating or otherwise occupying land, the total number of holdings covering an area of 10,80,443 acres. The average size of *khalisa* (land reserved for the State as opposed to land assigned or granted to individuals) was 3 acres but land was most unevenly distributed. The number of persons occupy-

ing land, the size of the holding and the total area as on June 30, 1945, are given below :

Size of holding (in acres)	Total number of persons occupying land	Total area (in acres)
0 to 0.5	63,301	21,115
0.5 to 1	39,204	29,761
1 to 2	41,069	60,914
2 to 3	25,226	61,517
3 to 4	15,724	53,929
4 to 5	11,051	49,003
5 to 6	7,710	41,947
6 to 7	5,768	36,956
7 to 8	4,194	31,303
8 to 9	3,346	28,256
9 to 10	2,650	24,975
10 to 12	3,324	36,018
12 to 14	2,332	30,370
14 to 16	1,591	23,786
16 to 18	1,138	19,198
18 to 20	997	18,790
20 to 25	1,147	25,771
Over 25	1,614	70,007

Abolition of Zamindari

The coming of Independence in 1947 marked a sign post in the sphere of revenue administration in the district (as elsewhere in the Country). On the recommendation of the U.P. Zamindari Abolition Committee, 1946, the Congress government in the State passed the Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1950 (U.P. Act, I of 1951), doing away with the system of intermediaries and replacing the multiplicity of tenures by only three types, the *bhumidhar*, *sirdar* and *asami*. On the eve of the abolition of zamindari in the year 1952, the land revenue in the district amounted to Rs 17,74,120. Every intermediary whose right, title or interest in any estate was acquired under the provisions of the Act became entitled to receive compensation according to the scale laid down in the Act and the rules made thereunder.

Till 1974-75, the total compensation assessed amounted to Rs 1,17,52,950 of which Rs 39,73,200 was paid in cash and Rs 65,00,800 in bonds, to the intermediaries in this district. Zamindars with comparatively smaller estates were entitled to receive rehabilitation grants as well and 27,805 such intermediaries received rehabilitation grants in this district till 1974-75 and an amount of Rs 8,48,250 in cash and Rs 1,09,80,500 in bonds was paid to them.

Under the Act, the intermediaries became *bhumidhars* of their *sir* and *khudkasht* lands and groves. Certain other tenure holders also acquired the same status in the land under their cultivation, provided they fulfilled certain specified conditions. A *bhumidhar* possesses permanent, heritable and transferable rights in his holding from which he cannot be ejected. Certain other categories of tenants who did not acquire *bhumidhari* rights became *sirdars* of the land in their cultivation. A *sirdar* has a permanent and heritable interest in his holding but he cannot transfer it. He may use his land only for purposes of agriculture, horticulture and animal husbandry. He can, however, acquire *bhumidhari* rights in his holding by paying to the government a sum representing a specified multiple (now 20 times) of his annual rent. Certain *bhumidhars* and *sirdars* are entitled to sublet their lands, for example, those employed in the defence services or invalidated by age or injury, etc. An *asami* is a lessee of a *bhumidhar*, a *sirdar* or the *gaon sabha*. He has neither heritable nor transferable rights and is liable to ejection for void transfers or on the extinction of the rights of the *bhumidhars* or *sirdars* concerned or for contravention of any other provision of the Act.

In 1974-75, the number of tenure holders and their holdings with their total areas were as follows :

Tenure holders	No. of tenure holders	No. of holdings	Area in hectares
Bhumidhars	3,51,523	2,06,066	1,35,597
Sirdars	5,92,313	2,61,065	1,50,029
Asamis	4,750	3,292	610

Bhumidhars and *sirdars* have been made jointly responsible for the payment of land revenue to which a holding is assessed. The Act also established land management committees for the management of lands not comprised in any holding or grove and for management of forests within the village boundaries, tanks, ponds and fisheries, *hats*, bazars and *melas* and other sources of income vested in the *gaon sabha*.

Bhoodan

In 1951, (Acharya) Vinoba Bhave initiated in Uttar Pradesh the *bhoodan* movement with the object of receiving land gifts for the landless. The State Government passed the U.P. Bhoodan Yajna Act, 1952 and in response the people of the district donated 636 ha. of land of which 581.31 ha. have been distributed.

Imposition of Ceiling on Land Holdings

The U.P. Agricultural Income-tax Act, 1948, was passed to tax agricultural income in excess of Rs 4,200 per annum. The tax was not payable by a landholder if he did not cultivate more than 12.140 ha. of land. This Act was replaced by the U.P. Large Land Holdings Tax Act, 1957, which imposed a tax on such land holdings the annual income from which exceeded Rs 3,600. A landholder who did not cultivate more than 12 ha. of land was exempted from the payment of the tax under this Act. The tax was levied on a graduated scale so that the larger the holding the greater the incidence of the tax.

As a step towards social and economic justice and to provide land for the landless and agricultural labourers and thus to bring about an equitable distribution of the land, the Uttar Pradesh Imposition of Ceiling on Land Holdings Act, 1960, (amended Act, 1972) was enforced in the district in that year and replaced the U.P. Large Land Holdings Tax Act, 1957. Under the Act, the maximum area of a holding was fixed at 16.19 ha. of fair quality land. If, however, the number of members of the holder's family was more than five, he was allowed to retain, for each additional member, an area of 3.25 ha. subject to a maximum of 9.72 ha. of such additional area. As the surplus land held by a tenure holder in excess of the ceiling area vested in the State Government, the tenure holder became entitled to receive compensation. The number of landholders affected by the provisions of the Act was 25. So far 232.35 ha. of land has been declared surplus of which 176 ha. have been settled with the tenure holders. The total compensation assessed amounted to Rs 2,06,383 of which Rs 29,391 has been paid. The U.P. Imposition of Ceiling Act, 1972, came into force from June 8, 1973, under which 1,791 tenure holders were served with notices and 378 cases disposed of. Land measuring 224.56 ha. was declared surplus.

ADMINISTRATION OF TAX OTHER THAN LAND REVENUE

In this district (as elsewhere in the State) the other main sources of revenue are Central and State taxes.

Central Taxes

The Central Government taxes are those pertaining to excise, income-tax and estate duty.

Central Excise—For purposes of Central excise the district falls under the jurisdiction of the assistant collector of Central excise, Varanasi Division.

The excise revenue collected in the district from 1969-70 to 1973-74 was as under, the chief excisable commodities being tobacco, power-looms, matches, *khandsari* sugar, metal containers, etc. :

Year	Amount of excise revenue collected
1969-70	7,35,434
1970-71	8,53,689
1971-72	7,53,107
1972-73	8,84,901
1973-74	6,53,079

Income-tax—This is one of the important sources of revenue of the Central Government. For collection of the tax, district falls under the administrative control of the income-tax officer, Jaunpur.

Wealth-tax and Gift-tax are imposed under the provisions of the Wealth Tax Act, 1957, and the Gift Tax Act, 1958, are also collected by the income-tax department.

Estate duty is levied under the provisions of the Estate Duty Act, 1953, on the property left by deceased persons. District Ghazipur falls under the estate duty circle, Allahabad, which is under the charge of an assistant collector with headquarters at Allahabad.

State Taxes

Excise, sales tax, stamp duty, registration fees, tax on motor vehicles, entertainment tax, etc., are the other principal sources of revenue of the State Government.

Excise—The taxes under this head are collected under the U.P. Excise Act, 1910, as amended from time to time. The deputy collector, Ghazipur, is in charge of the excise administration of the district. The district falls under the jurisdiction of the assistant excise commissioner, Varanasi. The district has been divided into two excise circles and one excise inspector has been posted in each circle for the purpose. Circle I comprises the Sadar and Zamania tahsils. Circle II comprises the Muhammadabad and Saidpur tahsils. Liquor is supplied to the district by Narang Industries Ltd., Nawabganj, Gonda, under the contract supply system. No distillery

exists in the district. The number of liquor shops in the four tahsils is as follows : 13 at Sadar, 10 at Zamania, 11 at Muhammadabad and 15 at Saidpur. There is only one bonded warehouse in the district.

Opium—After 1857, poppy was cultivated in the district only in tracts notified by the government. All excisable opium is obtained from the government opium factory, Ghazipur. Opium is stored in the district treasury and is issued to permit holders by the tahsildars of the district.

The following statement indicates the amount of country spirit sold from 1962-63 to 1973-74 :

Year	Sale in L. P. (in l.)
1962-63	59,554
1963-64	66,985.7
1964-65	67,607.5
1965-66	49,519.7
1966-67	64,205.6
1967-68	65,934
1968-69	64,245
1969-70	59,671
1970-71	59,856
1971-72	58,451
1972-73	63,030
1973-74	79,359

The main reason for the decrease in the sale of country spirit in 1965-66 and from 1968-69 to 1970-71 was due to fluctuations in market prices.

The following statement indicates the quantity of bhang and ganja consumed in the district from 1962-63 to 1973-74 :

Year	Bhang (in kg.)	Ganja (in kg.)
1962-63	1,409	1.75
1963-64	1,423	1.75
1964-65	1,448	0.750
1965-66	1,579	1.50
1966-67	1,714	1.25
1967-68	1,669	0.250
1968-69	1,679	1.250
1969-70	1,671	1.750
1970-71	1,232	2.00
1971-72	1,404	1.500
1972-73	1,468	1.250
1973-74	1,506	0.750

The following statement shows the amount of excise revenue from 1962-63 to 1973-74 :

Year	Amount (in Rs)
1962-63	7,00,355
1963-64	8,55,104
1964-65	8,81,575
1965-66	10,30,777
1966-67	12,22,174
1967-68	14,35,449
1968-69	18,80,886
1969-70	1,48,98,271
1970-71	17,86,374
1971-72	19,59,527
1972-73	18,69,583
1973-74	25,21,737

Sales Tax—Sales tax is levied under the U.P. Sales Tax Act, 1948, and also under the Central Sales Tax Act, 1957. The former has been amended from time to time to make certain changes in the limits of the taxable turnover. For purposes of the administration of the former Act (as amended from time to time) a sales tax officer has been appointed at Ghazipur.

The number of assesseees and the amount collected as sales tax (State) in the district in the year 1975-76 in respect of important commodities are given in the following statement :

Commodity	Amount of sales tax (in Rs)
Opium	5,63,114
Grocery	1,29,945
Bricks	1,99,435
Fertilizers	1,66,498
Medicines	1,21,901
Cement	90,647
Iron and steel	56,364
Colours	51,695
Bicycles	89,643
Lubricant	43,659
Electric goods	25,412

The following statement shows the total amount of sales tax collected in the district from 1969-70 to 1974-75 :

Year	Amount (in Rs)
1969-70	15,67,218
1970-71	16,69,049
1971-72	17,03,376
1972-73	17,51,510
1973-74	21,96,892
1974-75	26,65,004

Stamps and Registration

Under the Indian Stamp Act, 1899, stamps are classified as judicial and non-judicial. The former are affixed where a court fee has to be paid and the latter on bills of exchange, receipts involving a sum of Rs 20 or more and documents in respect of which stamp duty is payable. Income from this source also includes fines and penalties realised under the Act.

The receipts under this head during the five years ended 1974-75 were as follows :

Year	Sale (in Rs)	
	Judicial	Non-judicial
1970-71	3,76,104	8,90,526
1971-72	4,10,507	10,78,351
1972-73	4,11,610	8,40,250
1973-74	4,32,465	15,40,843
1974-75	4,19,073	12,90,900

Documents such as instruments of gifts, sale and lease of immovable property and those relating to shares in a joint-stock company have to be registered under the Indian Registration Act, 1908. For this work there are four subregistrars in the district who are posted at the headquarters of each tahsil of the district. An additional district magistrate is the district registrar.

The following statement shows the income and expenditure on the establishment during 1970-71 to 1974-75 :

Year	Income (in Rs)	Expenditure (in Rs)	No. of documents registered
1970-71	2,63,119	59,358	6,925
1971-72	3,28,824	60,622	7,946
1972-73	2,72,836	74,989	5,810
1973-74	4,66,680	64,652	8,834
1974-75	5,97,271	91,759	10,112

Tax on Motor Vehicles

The motor vehicles in the district are taxed under the U.P. Motor Vehicles Taxation Act, 1933 (Act V of 1935), and the Indian Motor Vehicles Act, 1939. The district falls under the jurisdiction of regional transport officer, Varanasi.

The following statement shows the amount of tax collected under these Acts in the Varanasi region from 1971-72 to 1975-76 :

Year	Income (in Rs)
1971-72	55,94,028
1972-73	64,96,014
1973-74	78,75,461
1974-75	89,60,018
1975-76	1,07,77,227

Under the provisions of the U.P. Motorgadi (Yatri-kar) Adhiniyam, 1962, a tax has been imposed since 1962, on passengers travelling in public or private motor vehicles for hire.

The following statement gives the amount of tax collected under the Act in the Varanasi region from 1971-72 to 1974-75 :

Year	Amount (in Rs)
1971-72	9,76,230
1972-73	17,34,707
1973-74	21,24,646
1974-75	25,51,896

The Motorgadi (Mal-kar) Adhiniyam, 1964, provides for the levy of a tax on goods carried by motor vehicles. It was enforced in the Varanasi region in 1962. The following statement shows the amount of tax collected under this Act in the region from 1971-72 to 1974-75 :

Year	Amount (in Rs)
1971-72	13,12,668
1972-73	18,72,766
1973-74	21,13,117
1974-75	28,66,414

Entertainment and Betting Tax

Entertainment tax is realised from cinemas and other places of entertainment. A deputy collector of the district is in charge of collecting the entertainment tax in the district. The tax on entertainment is levied under the provisions of the U.P. Entertainment and Betting Tax Act, 1937. An entertainment tax inspector has been posted in the district. The following statement shows the amount of tax collected from 1971-72 to 1974-75 :

Year	Amount (in Rs)
1971-72	2,66,824
1972-73	3,25,498
1973-74	3,67,921
1974-75	4,62,938



CHAPTER XII

LAW AND ORDER AND JUSTICE

LAW AND ORDER

The present district of Ghazipur formed a part of the empires of the Mauryas, Guptas and Harshavardhan under whom the inhabitants were collectively responsible for the maintenance of peace and the prevention of crime in their localities. *Rakshaks* were appointed in each village to guard public property and in case of failure they were held personally liable to make good the loss. With the growth of feudal institutions, the responsibility for maintaining peace devolved on the landlords, though the institution of *rakshak* was retained. During Muslim rule, kotwals were appointed in the towns and were paid a monthly allowance to meet the expenses on their staff of chowkidars and peons. In the 16th century it was the duty of the *faujdar* to maintain peace, keep the roads free from robbers and to enforce the imperial regulations and thanadars were appointed to assist him.

At the commencement of British rule the only police force was that maintained in the town of Ghazipur by the kotwal, an official who exercised limited magisterial powers. The supervision of the town police was entrusted to the judge appointed in 1788 but probably on the abolition of the city court in 1795 this work was restored to the kotwal. In the rural areas the *amils* were nominally responsible for the maintenance of law and order, a similar responsibility resting on the landlords; but the system was crude and ineffective, crime was rife, especially along the river and there was no real control over the revenue officials. A separate police force was formed by the creation of the Varanasi provincial battalion in 1803. Escorts and guards were drawn from the army, special patrols were deployed for road and river traffic and a small force for the detection of crimes was maintained at the police-stations. In the beginning, police duties were performed by the revenue officials, with the magistrate and collector acting as chief of the district police force. The tahsildars supervised police work in the tahsils, with a number of thanas placed under their jurisdiction. In 1807, all the tahsildars were relieved of their police duties as they paid more attention to revenue work and neglected their police duties. The combination of police, judicial and administrative functions in the magistrate and collector made him heavily overworked. The duty for maintaining watch and ward was performed very inefficiently by the village watchmen who were the servants of the landlords and the entire set-up resulted in chaos and confusion. There are no details to be had in any records

regarding the way in which law and order was maintained in the area now covered by the district but it is likely that the same pattern was followed here as obtained elsewhere. At that time there were a number of professional criminals and wandering tribes in this region, later comprising the Bhars, Ahirs and Pasis; but the criminals of this district generally, resorted to the waterways of Bengal, where many instances of piracy, burglary and other offences had been traced to the inhabitants of Ghazipur. Infanticide was prevalent amongst the Rajputs in that period.

The years following 1857 brought several administrative problems to the fore and an effort was made to organise the police on a regular basis. The government felt that the responsibility for policing the country should devolve upon the provincial administration and that it was for the latter to maintain a paid force for this purpose. In 1860, a committee was appointed and its recommendations led to the promulgation of the Police Act (Act V of 1861), which is still in operation with minor modifications. The Act introduced a uniform system. A superintendent of police to act as the head of the district police was appointed in each district. The police circles as then determined were 15 in number, the stations being located at Ghazipur, Muhammadabad, Saidpur, Zamania, Korantadih, Karon, Qasimabad, Gahmar, Mardah, Sadat, Birnon, Shadiabad, Karanda, Nandganj and Dhanapur and there were 5 out-posts at—Narhi, Dildarnagar, Bahadurganj, Khanpur and Jalalabad.

Incidence of Crime

A study of the crime returns of the district shows that in the last 25 years or so, robbery, burglaries and other offences have been on the increase. There are also local as well as inter-State gangs of dacoits and robbers in addition to gamblers, traffickers in girls and women and smugglers of articles subject to excise and other duties. The crime statistics under the different heads for the years 1970 to 1974 are given below :

Crime		1970	1971	1972	1973	1974
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Murder						
	Reported	34	36	40	45	49
	Convicted	9	11	7	■	7
	Acquitted	15	11	7	9	9

[Contd.]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Dacoity						
	Reported	56	66	24	24	41
	Convicted	12	15	2	3	4
	Acquitted	20	14	5	3	3
Robbery						
	Reported	47	45	27	25	50
	Convicted	6	8	1	-	1
	Acquitted	3	7	1	1	1
Theft						
	Reported	745	640	593	551	585
	Convicted	43	38	32	24	10
	Acquitted	41	39	21	28	14
Riot						
	Reported	197	226	129	152	152
	Convicted	30	34	14	10	8
	Acquitted	36	32	21	12	9
House-breaking						
	Reported	837	685	537	606	637
	Convicted	45	48	23	16	14
	Acquitted	40	32	33	15	12
Kidnapping						
	Reported	11	13	7	13	8
	Convicted	1	2	1	-	-
	Acquitted	2	2	-	-	-

Organisation of Police

The district is included in the police range, Varanasi, which is under the charge of a deputy inspector general of police, with headquarters at Varanasi. The district police administration is headed by a superintendent of police who is responsible for the efficiency, discipline and the proper performance of duties by the police force functioning under him. He keeps contact with the residents of the district to acquire knowledge of unlawful happenings in the district. The police force is divided into two broad divisions, the civil police and the armed police.

Civil Police—The duties of the civil police consist of watch and ward, maintenance of law and order, prevention, detection and investigation of crime and the service of summons and processes of the law courts.

To secure systematic and speedy functioning of the police, the district is divided into three circles—Ghazipur, Muhammadabad and Zamania, each under the charge of a deputy superintendent of police. Each circle is subdivided into a number of police-stations which have been demarcated broadly on the basis of area and population and are located in important villages and towns. The police-stations and out-posts circlewise are mentioned below :

Police circle	Police-station	Out-post
1. Ghazipur	Kotwali	Gorabazar, Visheswarganj, Rajdepur, Razaganj, Lotan Imli, Khodaipura Jangipur
	Saidpur	Saidpur, Maundah
	Nandganj	—
	Sadat	—
	Shadiabad	—
	Burkura	Dulhpur, Bahariyabad
2. Muhammadabad	Muhammadabad	Muhammadabad
	Qasimabad	Bahadurganj
	Mardah	—
	Birno	—
	Nonhara	—
	Karimuddinpur	Asawar
3. Zamania	Zamania	Railway station Zamania, Kasba, Zamania, Karamhari
	Dildarnagar	Usia, Kasba Dildarnagar
	Karanda	—
	Gahmar	Gahmar, Reotipur, Sewrai
	Bhanwarkol	Sherpur, Bhason, Basaniyan, Virpur, Palia

The kotwali or the police-station at the district headquarters is under the charge of an inspector assisted by six subinspectors, two assistant subinspectors, 10 head constables and 70 constables. The other police-stations are each staffed by two to four subinspectors assisted by two to five head constables as well as constables.

Armed Police—The duties of the armed police are to furnish guards and escorts, to suppress and prevent disorder and crimes of violence, to maintain peace in disturbed areas and to protect government property, treasuries and vital communications. The armed police is stationed at the reserve police lines at the district headquarters.

Prosecution Staff—There is a prosecution branch which has been separated from the regular police and placed under the charge of the district magistrate since April 1, 1974. It consists of a public prosecutor and eight assistant public prosecutors. They conduct proceedings on behalf of the State before magistrates and also advise the investigating officers on legal matters arising in the course of the investigation of crimes.

Village Police

The village chowkidars, who are part-time government servants, are the only police agency in the villages. Their main duty is to inform the local police of the occurrence of any crime. They also act as process-servers in the *nyaya* panchayats for which they get some remuneration. They are appointed by the district magistrate but the control and supervision over them rests with the superintendent of police.

Pradeshik Vikas Dal

This organised and disciplined body of volunteers was set up in the district originally under the name of Prantiya Rakshak Dal to mobilize manpower, carry out youth welfare activities in the rural areas and prepare villagers for self defence. It also performs civil defence duties like guarding strategic points, assisting the police in traffic control, preventing looting, fire fighting, maintenance of communications, etc. The paid staff in the district consists of a district organiser and 16 block organisers, the unpaid staff comprising 193 *halka sardars* (circle leaders), 1,280 *dalpatis* (group leaders), 6,400 *tolt nayaks* (section leaders), and 64,000 *rakshaks* (guards). The guards are also called up for duty during fairs and on occasions when the police force is in need of help.

Village Defence Societies

Village defence societies are purely non-official organisations set up to protect the villagers specially against dacoits. The members are trained

to stand up against undesirable elements in society for the defence of life and property. There were 1,130 such societies in the district in 1974.

Government Railway Police

There is railway police out-post located at Ghazipur under the charge of a head constable. It falls in the Ballia railway police-station. In the district the police personnel of this wing maintains law and order at the railway stations, controls passenger traffic, assists the railway magistrates on duty and deals with crimes committed in connection with railway journeys.

JAIL AND LOCK-UPS

The district jail is in the charge of a deputy chief medical officer designated superintendent. He is assisted by a jailor, a deputy jailor and three assistant jailors. Control over the administration of the jail is exercised by the inspector general of prisons, U.P., Lucknow. The jail hospital is looked after by a whole-time doctor, called the assistant medical officer. The district jail can accommodate 569 convicts and under-trial prisoners. Its population figures from 1971 to 1975 are as tabled below :

Year	Daily average population	
	Convicts	Under-trials
1971	92	241
1972	84	237
1973	74	227
1974	63	277
1975	92	360

Welfare of Prisoners—Prisoners and under-trial prisoners were formerly divided into three categories, 'A' 'B' and 'C' but since 1948 they are classified only as 'superior' and 'ordinary'. Conditions of life in the district jail have improved considerably after Independence with the introduction of various amenities. Regular wages are paid for the work the prisoners do in jail. They are encouraged to learn the three R's (reading, writing and simple arithmetic) and to take part in constructive activities. They may read newspapers, books and periodicals from the jail library. Facilities for recreation, in-door and outdoor games and for cultural and social activities are also provided.

Visitors—The ex-officio visitors of the jail are the director of medical and public health services, U.P., the commissioner of the Varanasi Division, the district and sessions judge and the district magistrate.

All the members of the State and Central legislatures belonging to the district, all members of the standing committees of the State legislature on jails, the chairman of the Central committee of the Uttar Pradeshiya Apradh Nirodhak Samiti and three members recommended by the district magistrate are non-official visitors of the jail.

Revising Board—There is a revising board for the district jail which gives consideration to the revision of the sentences of all casual and habitual convicts with sentences of three years and above after they have served a specified period of the sentence. It consists of the district magistrate, the district and sessions judge and a non-official member.

Lock-ups—Lock-ups for both males and females are located in the premises of the collectorate for the custody of under-trial prisoners brought from the jail to the courts to attend the hearing of their cases and for the custody of persons sentenced to imprisonment by the various courts till they are finally taken to the district jail. Lock-ups are supervised by the public prosecutor acting under the overall control of the district magistrate. There is also a lock-up under the charge of the station officer at each police-station.

There is at the headquarters of each tahsil a revenue lock-up for detaining persons arrested for non-payment of government dues. Such defaulters may be detained for a maximum period of 14 days at a time.

Probation

The probation scheme was introduced here in 1950, under the U. P. First Offenders' Probation Act, 1938. A reformation officer works under the administrative control of the district magistrate. The reformation officer supervises the activities and conduct of those released on probation, ensures that they observe the conditions of the bonds executed by them and makes reports regarding them to the courts concerned. First offenders numbering 31 in 1973 were let off after admonition or on furnishing a bond. In that year 71 probationers were released and placed under the supervision of the reformation officer.

JUSTICE

The administration of justice under the Hindu monarchs always remained separate from the executive and was mostly independent in form and spirit. The law court bore the ancient Vedic name, the Sabha. In addition to the *Dharma Sutra*, there were other sources of the law : contract, custom and royal ordinance. The judges were appointed from among the Brahmanas and were above the influence of the king. Records of cases were kept. Before the British introduced their law, the Muhammandan

law of crimes were enforced in this region as in other parts. The *qazi* (judge) was the administrator of the Islamic law, both civil and criminal, which was based on Quranic principles. By the close of the 19th century sufficient uniformity in the substantive and procedural laws of the Country was achieved by the passing of the Indian Penal Code, the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Indian Evidence Act.

In the pre-Independence period the courts in the district consisted of those of the district and sessions judge, Ghazipur, whose jurisdiction extended to Ballia, the subordinate civil judge, Ghazipur, and the munsifs of Ghazipur, Saidpur and Muhammadabad. The district of Ballia was taken away from the jurisdiction of the district judge of Ghazipur and began to function as a separate judge's court from July, 1956.

Criminal Justice

The sessions judge's court is the highest criminal court of the district and has the power to inflict the penalty of death subject to confirmation by the high court. The sessions judge is assisted by two additional sessions judges and one assistant sessions judge. The chief judicial magistrate at the district headquarters and the judicial magistrate of Ghazipur are also under the control of the sessions judge. The munsifs of Ghazipur, Saidpur and Muhammadabad have also been invested with magisterial powers of the first class and they also try criminal cases.

Relevant particulars regarding the criminal cases committed to the sessions in the years 1972, 1973 and 1974 are given below :

Nature of offence	1972	1973	1974
Affecting life	42	42	85
Kidnapping and forcible abduction	1	1	3
Hurt	10	14	25
Rape	3	1	7
Robbery and dacoity	48	44	53
Other cases	20	26	31

Details regarding the number of persons tried and sentenced in criminal cases during the three years ended 1974 by the Ghazipur judge's bench are given below :

Persons tried/sentenced	1972	1973	1974
Tried	439	648	401
Sentenced to death	—	3	4
Life imprisonment	62	57	36
Rigorous imprisonment	70	121	135
Simple imprisonment	—	—	—
Fined only	4	3	3
Other punishment	70	121	136

Executive Magistrates

The entire responsibility of dealing with situations like riots or disturbances in the district is integrated under the authority of the district magistrate. He is the chief executive magistrate of the district and is assisted by an additional district magistrate at headquarters. Four subdivisional magistrates and two extra magistrates are also executive magistrates in the district. All the tahsildars are subordinate executive magistrates. The new Code of Criminal Procedure enforced in the Country from April 1, 1974, took away the judicial powers of the executive magistrates but they continue to exercise jurisdiction of a preventive nature under sections 107 and 151 and of a prohibitory character under sections 133 and 144 of this new Code. The position regarding cognizable crime under the Code of Criminal Procedure from 1970 to 1974 was as follows :

Year	Cases under Cr. P. C.	
	Cases instituted	Persons involved
1970	522	4,548
1971	572	3,866
1972	784	5,518
1973	1,189	7,499
1974	1,109	8,075

Details regarding the number of persons tried and sentenced in criminal cases during the five years ended 1974 by the courts under the district magistrate, Ghazipur, are given below :

Year	Persons tried	Sentenced to rigorous imprisonment	Fined only
1970	4,856	501	667
1971	3,821	528	787
1972	6,370	1,209	1,127
1973	7,146	373	1,309
1974	6,717	434	325

Civil Justice

In addition to the district judge, there are three additional civil judges in the district who exercise equal powers with him. All of them have unlimited original pecuniary jurisdiction in civil cases and powers of hearing revisions. They also have powers to hear certain other types of

cases for which jurisdiction has been conferred on them by various Acts and Statutes. Three munsifs dispose of regular civil suits and also cases from the court of small causes up to a prescribed valuation.

The position of the case work in the civil courts in the year 1974 was as follows :

Cases	Number
Pending at beginning of year	2,590
Instituted during year	1,198
Suits disposed of during year	999
Pending at end of year	2,789

In that year the number of suits involving immovable property was 608. The number of suits involving money and movable property was 364.

The number of suits instituted in 1974 according to valuation was as follows :

Valuation	Number of suits
Not exceeding Rs 100	46
Exceeding Rs 100 but not 1,000	621
Exceeding Rs 1,000 but not 5,000	257
Exceeding Rs 5,000 but not 10,000	43
Exceeding Rs 10,000	22

The details of the disposal of suits in the year 1974 were as follows :

Manner of disposal	Number of suits
Dismissed in default	236
Decided after trial	249
Suits decided ex parte	146
On admission of claims	67
Settled by compromise	157
On reference to arbitration	—
Otherwise decided without trial	125

The position of appeals instituted and disposed of in the district in the year 1974 was as follows :

Nature of appeals	Instituted	Disposed of
Regular civil appeals	106	128
Miscellaneous civil appeals	65	20

Separation of Executive from Judiciary

Previously the judicial magistrates, who tried criminal cases under the appellate authority of the sessions judge, worked under the administrative control of the district magistrate for purposes of law and order duties. As a step towards the separation of the judiciary from the executive, all judicial magistrates working under the district magistrate were transferred to the control of the district and sessions judge, Ghazipur, with effect from October 2, 1967. This process reached its culmination with the enforcement of the new Code of Criminal Procedure on April 1, 1974, which ensures an absolute separation of the judiciary from the executive. The new Code makes some far-reaching changes in the classification, nomenclature and powers of courts. It also simplifies the procedure so as to speed up the course of justice.

Nyaya Panchayats

For the purpose of associating the people with the administration of justice, the U. P. Panchayat Raj Act, 1947, established panchayati *adalats* in 1949 which were subsequently named *nyaya* panchayats. The jurisdiction of a *nyaya* panchayat usually extends over an area of 5 to 10 *gaon sabhas*, depending on the population of the constituent villages. The total number of *nyaya* panchayats in the district was 193 in 1975.

The *nyaya* panchayats are empowered to try cases under the following Acts and their respective sections :

- (a) The U. P. Panchayat Raj Act, 1947
- (b) The Indian Penal Code, sections relating to petty offences such as public nuisance, trespass, intimidation and threat etc. and cases of theft or misappropriation involving property not exceeding an amount of Rs 50 in value
- (c) Section 24 and 26 of the cattle trespass Act, 1871
- (d) Subsection 1 of section 10 of the U. P. District Primary Education Act, 1926 and
- (e) Sections 3,4,7 and 13 of the Public Gambling Act, 1867

The *nyaya* panchayats also try civil suits upto a valuation of Rs 500, and revenue cases if parties concerned agree in writing to such a course. They are not authorised to award sentences of imprisonment and can impose fines only upto a hundred rupees. Revision applications against their decisions in civil, criminal and revenue cases lie to the munsifs, and the subdivisional magistrates. The number of criminal and civil cases instituted in the *nyaya* panchayats during the year 1975 was 192 and 216 and the number of cases disposed of by them was 169 and 171 respectively.



CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

The government departments that are concerned with general administration, revenue administration and law and order and justice in the district have already been dealt with in chapters X, XI, and XII respectively. The organisational set-up of other principal offices in the district is discussed in the following paragraphs.

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT

The district is under the regional supervision of a deputy director, with headquarters at Varanasi.

In the district, the district agriculture officer assisted by three additional district agriculture officers and a senior technical assistant, is in the immediate charge of agricultural programmes, including the formulation and implementation of the Five-year Plan schemes. The district agriculture officer looks after the execution of all agricultural activities in the district such as distribution of improved seeds, fertilizers and implements, oil-seed extension work, plant protection and the like. Under him work 16 assistant development officers (agriculture) and 39 assistant agriculture inspectors for supervision of seed stores and package scheme. There are 36 seed stores in the district, each under the charge of an assistant agriculture inspector. There are also 84 *kamdars* who are posted in the district.

The plant protection officer (with headquarters at Ghazipur) supervises operations aiming at the control of pests and plant diseases. He also provides the necessary equipment and technical information to farmers and horticulturists. The plant protection officer is assisted by a senior plant protection assistant, 16 plant protection assistants and 16 supervisors.

Soil Conservation

The district falls within the jurisdiction of the deputy director, agriculture (soil conservation). Varanasi region, with headquarters at Varanasi.

Two separate soil conservation units are located in the district, one at Ghazipur and the other at Dildarnagar, each controlled by a soil conservation officer who is assisted by a technical assistant, two overseers, five soil conservation inspectors and 25 assistant soil conservation inspectors.

HORTICULTURE DEPARTMENT

The horticultural development activities are controlled and supervised by the senior horticulture inspector who is assisted by a district horticulture inspector, a head *chaudhri* and two gardeners. They supervise the lay out of orchards and the planting of fruit trees and offer technical guidance to horticulturists and vegetable growers.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT

Ghazipur falls within the circle of the deputy director (animal husbandry) with headquarters at Varanasi. The district live-stock officer is in charge of the veterinary services, breed promotion and fodder development in the district. This includes treatment of animal diseases, castration of scrub bulls and improvement in the stock of cattle in the district. He is assisted by an artificial insemination officer, an officer in charge of the semen collection station, three veterinary officers, 19 veterinary assistant surgeons, two assistant development officers (animal husbandry) and 25 stockmen. The artificial insemination officer looks after the breeding programme. The officer in charge of the semen collection station is responsible for collection, preservation, despatch and utilization of semen. There are 22 veterinary hospitals and 17 artificial insemination centres in the district. The veterinary hospitals are looked after by 19 veterinary assistant surgeons and two assistant development officers (animal husbandry). The artificial insemination centres are supervised by three veterinary officers and 14 veterinary assistant surgeons.

CO-OPERATIVE DEPARTMENT

The co-operative department deals with the organisation, registration, supervision and working of the various types of co-operative societies operating in the district and their liquidation in addition to attending to administrative and statutory functions.

The deputy director, co-operative societies, Varanasi, is the regional head of the department. At the district level, an assistant registrar supervises all activities pertaining to co-operative undertakings besides exercising control over the staff and the institutions in the district. He is assisted by four additional district co-operative officers and seven co-operative inspectors. In addition there are 12 assistant development officers (co-operatives), three assistant co-operative inspectors, one village level worker, one supervisor (farming), 33 co-operative supervisors (seed) and 50 co-operative supervisors (loan).

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

The boys' higher secondary education department in the district is headed by a district inspector of schools working under the overall

supervision of the deputy director of education, Varanasi. The district inspector of schools is assisted by an associate district inspector of schools. An assistant commandant assists the district inspector of schools in organising sports in the educational institutions.

The girls' high schools and intermediate colleges in the district are directly controlled by the regional inspectress of girls' schools, with headquarters at Varanasi but the duties of drawal and disbursement of monies are performed by the district inspector of schools for the sake of local convenience.

The boys' junior high schools are under the direct supervision of the zila Basic *shiksha adhkari*. He is assisted by a deputy inspector of schools and 16 subdeputy inspectors of schools. An education superintendent supervised the Basic schools located within the municipal limits of Ghazipur town.

For the junior high schools for girls there is an additional zila Basic *shiksha adhkari* (women) and she has under her a deputy inspectress and six assistant inspectresses of girls' schools.

INDUSTRIES DEPARTMENT

Ghazipur falls within the Varanasi zone of the department controlled by the deputy director of industries with headquarters at Varanasi. At the district level the district industries officer looks after the development of both small-scale and large-scale industries. His duties include the rendering of all possible assistance for setting up new and the expansion of existing industries.

There is also a deputy director, rural industries project, who looks after the work of development of industries in the rural areas of the district. He is assisted by a planning and survey officer, a technical officer, four industries development officers (one each posted in a tahsil) and four investigators.

PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT

The district has three divisions of the State public works department—the provincial division, the temporary national highway division and the Ganga bridge construction unit State bridge corporation, Ltd, Ghazipur.

The provincial division (which falls within circle VI, Gorakhpur, which is under a superintending engineer) is manned at the district level by an executive engineer assisted by four assistant engineers, one each being posted at Ghazipur, Saidpur, Muhammadabad and Zamania. There are 39 junior engineers also who are posted in this division.

The temporary highway division which forms part of circle XVIII, Allahabad, is headed at Ghazipur by an executive engineer who is assisted by three assistant engineers and 10 junior engineers.

The Ganga bridge construction unit State bridge corporation, Ltd, Ghazipur, is under the charge of a senior engineer. He is assisted by three assistant engineers and six junior engineers.

IRRIGATION DEPARTMENT

The departmental activities are spread over the works connected with tube-wells, canals, lift irrigation and minor irrigation which are described below.

Tube-wells

The district forms part of the lift irrigation circle, Varanasi, under a superintending engineer. At the district level, the executive engineer, irrigation division, is in charge of the maintenance and construction of State tube-wells. He is assisted by five assistant engineers, a deputy revenue officer and 22 junior engineers (19 mechanical and three civil).

Canals

The irrigation construction circle, under a superintending engineer stationed at Varanasi, includes the district of Ghazipur which has two divisions—the Deokali pumped canal division I and the Deokali pumped canal division II.

The Deokali pumped canal division I is under the charge of an executive engineer who is assisted by four assistant engineers and 15 junior engineers (all civil).

The Deokali pumped canal division II is looked after by an executive engineer, three assistant engineers and 12 junior engineers (all civil). Their main job is to provide water to the cultivators and to keep the canals clear of silt.

Lift Irrigation

The lift irrigation division of Ghazipur forms part of the lift irrigation circle under a superintending engineer with headquarters at Varanasi. At the district level the lift irrigation work is under the charge of an executive engineer who is assisted by four assistant engineers, six junior engineers (civil), nine junior engineers (mechanical), two foremen, five mechanics and four *zildars*.

Minor Irrigation

For the supervision of minor irrigation works the district falls within the jurisdiction of the executive engineer, minor irrigation, with headquar-

ters at Varanasi. An assistant engineer posted at Ghazipur is in charge of the minor irrigation works in the district. He is assisted by a senior mechanical inspector, two junior engineers (mechanical) and 12 assistant development officers (minor irrigation). Their main functions are to advise and help the cultivators in the construction of private minor irrigation works and the boring of tube-wells.

STATE ELECTRICITY BOARD

The electricity maintenance division of Ghazipur falls within the jurisdiction of the superintending engineer, electricity maintenance circle, U.P. State electricity board, Varanasi. At the district level the division is looked after by an executive engineer assisted by seven subdivisional officers and two assistant engineers (revenue).

The division looks after the entire work of distribution of electrical power, construction of lines, supply of power to industrial establishments and tube-wells and the billing and realisation of electricity charges.



CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

During the ancient Hindu period, the villages of the district probably enjoyed autonomy and were governed by the panchayats which exercised administrative and judicial powers. These village bodies received a set back under Muslim rule and almost disappeared in their old form under British rule as their authority became confined to the community life of the village. The annexation of territory and the centralisation or administration during the early British period brought about the extinction of the traditional institutions of local self-government in India.

The events of 1857 had some small impact on the British rulers and the subsequent years saw various steps being taken towards the decentralisation of administration and the ushering in of local governments in the rural and urban areas. The first legal provision for the rural areas was the passing of the N. W. P. and Oudh Local Rates Act, 1871, followed by the Local Boards Act of 1883 which provided for the establishment of district and tahsil boards. The N. W. P. and Oudh Municipalities Act, 1883, gave greater autonomy and financial power to the municipalities allowing them to contribute towards education from their own funds, in addition to their earlier functions relating to sanitation, drainage, lighting, public health and regulation of markets, etc.

The most outstanding feature of the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916, was the introduction of the system of communal representation in the municipal boards, separate seats being allotted to Hindus, Muslims and the Scheduled Castes. Women were also made eligible. But the control of government over the municipal boards including their dissolution and supersession remained absolute as before. There was no major change in the constitution, powers and functions, etc., of the municipal boards till the achievement of Independence in 1947. By an amendment made in the Act in 1949, communal representation in the municipal elections was abolished and the method of election was also democratised through adult franchise. Another amendment in 1953 changed the nomenclature of the chairman of the board to president and provided for his direct election (on an experimental basis). Later, indirect elections were reintroduced and the municipal area was divided into wards which elected the members.

This was followed by the U.P. Nagar Mahapalika Adhiniyam, 1959, which empowered the State Government to frame rules for centralisation of any post in the mahapalikas (corporations) and municipal boards.

The municipal board looks after the work of sanitation, water supply, street lighting, public health and the registration of births and deaths.

In 1974-75 there were one municipal board, five town areas, one notified area, 16 *kshettra samitties*, 1,280 *gaon* panchayats and one Zila Parishad in the district.

MUNICIPAL BOARD

Ghazipur

The town of Ghazipur was first constituted a municipality on August 19, 1868. Prior to that date, its affairs were managed by a body known as the local agency (which was appointed in 1818 when the district was formed) under the presidency of the collector. Later the U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916, was made applicable and now it is administered under this Act. According to the census of 1971, it had an area of 13.73 sq.km. and the population was 45,635. The municipal area has been divided into seven wards, two members each being elected from four wards, three each from two wards and four from the remaining ward. The total number of members is 18. The members are elected by the residents of the municipal area on the basis of adult franchise and who in their turn elect the president. The term of office of the members and the president is five years.

Finances—The income of the municipal board is derived mainly from sources like government grants and contributions and local rates and taxes. The expenditure is incurred mainly on general administration, public works, public health and sanitation. The total income of the board was Rs 4,87,896 and its expenditure Rs 5,43,372 in 1973-74.

Water Supply—The waterworks was completed in the year 1938. The source of water is a tube-well. There is a waterworks engineer and a technical staff for the supervision of the waterworks. There are approximately 161 public taps in the town. Water is supplied for about seven hours every day. The supply per day is about 55 litres per head. The total supply in 1974-75 was about 9,27,000 kl. The length of the pipe-line laid by the board is 26.90 km. To reorganise the water supply scheme, the construction work of two overhead tanks and the laying of new pipe-lines was started in 1971.

Street Lighting—Electricity was made available to the town in 1940 by the Eastern Electric Company but now it is being supplied by the U. P. electricity board. For lighting the streets there are 1,600 electric lamps.

Public Health and Medical Services—The public health department of the board is looked after by the municipal medical officer of health.

The board employs two sanitary inspectors, two vaccinators, six sanitary supervisors and 171 sweepers to render sanitation and public health services in the town.

Drainage—The length of pakka and kutchra drains in the town is about 9.35 km. and 3.7 km. respectively. Drains about 3.2 km. in length are cleaned daily. The refuse and night-soil of the town is collected and compost prepared of it.

The income and expenditure of the municipal board for the last 10 years is given at the end of the chapter in Statements I (a) and I (b).

TOWN AREAS

There are five town areas in the district which are administered under the U.P. Town Areas Act, 1914 (Act II of 1914) by committees, each consisting of a chairman and a number of members, all directly elected by the residents of the town area on the basis of adult franchise, for a term of four years. The number of members of each committee depends on the population of the town area. The committees are empowered to levy house tax, property tax, tax on agricultural land situated within the town area limits and the like. Other sources of income are the sale proceeds of manure, licence fees, fines, water tax, loans and grants given by the government and rents of *nazul* land, if any. The main heads under which these local bodies spend their funds are general administration, collection charges, water supply, public health and sanitation, maintenance of public streets and drains and street lighting.

Bahadurganj

This town was administered under the Bengal Chowkidari Act, 1856, from February 27, 1873. It is being administered under the U.P. Town Areas Act, 1914. It had an area of about 1.53 sq. km. and its population was 5,314 according to the census of 1971. It is administered by the town area committee which consists of nine members including a chairman, all elected by the people of the town area for a term of four years. This period is extendable by government in special circumstances. The total income of the committee was Rs 82,184 and its expenditure Rs 82,963 in 1973-74. Electricity was made available to this place in 1960. For lighting the streets there are 44 electric lamps.

Dildarnagar

This place was declared a town area in November, 1957, and since then it is being administered under the U. P. Town Areas Act, 1914. It had an area of about 11.76 sq. km. and a population of 5,661, according

to the census of 1971. It is administered by the town area committee which consists of 10 members including the chairman, all elected by the people of the town area for a term of four years which can be extended by the government in special circumstances. The total income and expenditure of the committee was Rs 50,949 and Rs 38,519 respectively in 1973-74.

The implementation of the scheme for the supply of water was started in 1971-72. There were about 227 private connections and 20 public taps in 1973-74. The total length of the pipe-line in the town area was about 1.65 km. Electricity came to this place in 1965-66 and for lighting the streets there are about 60 electric lamps.

Saidpur

This place was declared a town area in February, 1860, and then was administered under the provisions of the Bengal Chowkidari Act, 1856. Since the passing of the U.P. Town Areas Act, 1914, it is being administered under that Act. It is administered by the town area committee consisting of 12 members including a chairman, all elected by the people of the town area for a term of four years which can be extended by the government in special circumstances. It had an area of 5.54 sq. km. and according to the census of 1971 the population was 10,045. The total income of the committee from various sources was Rs 1,14,449 and its expenditure on various heads Rs 1,04,351 in 1973-74. The work of supplying water was completed in 1966 and there were about 504 private connections and 24 public taps in 1973-74. The total length of the pipe-line in the town area was about 5.48 km. Electricity was brought to this place in 1966. For lighting the streets there are about 142 electric lamps.

Sadat

This town was constituted a town area on October 14, 1971, under the U. P. Town Areas Act, 1914. As no elections were held its affairs were looked after by an administrator. The place had an area of about 2.70 sq. km. in 1971 and a population of 3,866 according to the census of 1961. Its income was Rs 11,712 and its expenditure Rs 13,023 during the year 1973-74.

Zamania

This place was administered under the Bengal Chowkidari Act, 1856, from February 29, 1860. Now it is administered under the U. P. Town Areas Act, 1914. It had an area of 9.36 sq. km. and its population was 12,067 according to the census of 1971. It is administered by the town area committee which consists of 12 members including a chairman, all elected by the people of the town area for a term of four years which is

extendable by government in special circumstances. The total income of the committee from various sources was Rs 67,121 and its expenditure on various heads was Rs 52,773 during the year 1973-74. The waterworks was completed in 1966 and there are 360 private connections and 30 public taps. The total length of the pipe-line in the town area is about 8 km. Electricity was brought to this place in 1964 and for lighting the streets there are 106 electric lamps.

NOTIFIED AREA

Muhammadabad

This place was constituted a town area on February 13, 1873, under the Bengal Chowkidari Act, 1856. On December 1, 1962, it was declared a notified area. It is administered by a committee consisting of a president and 11 members who are elected directly by the people for a term of five years. It had an area of 6.35 sq. km. and a population of 13,320 according to the census of 1971. The committee administers the area in accordance with the U. P. Municipalities Act, 1916, and looks after sanitation, lighting and public works. The committee has its own waterworks which was completed on May 1, 1970. There are about 678 private and 64 public water connections and the total length of pipe-line is 21 km. Electricity was brought to this place in 1962 and for lighting the streets there are 182 electric lamps and 64 kerosene oil lamps.

The income and expenditure of town areas and notified area for the last ten years is given at the end of chapter in Statements II to VII.

PANCHAYATI RAJ

In ancient times the village panchayat, which was a body of village elders, had administrative and judicial powers and exercised full control over the villagers. During British rule these panchayats lost their power though they continued to survive and to control the social life of the village community. The U. P. Panchayat Raj Act, 1947, was passed after the coming of Independence. It reorganised the ancient system on the modern pattern of elected *gaon* panchayats and delegated to them adequate powers for the administration of the villages.

The community development blocks, which were established in 1952 with the launching of the planning and development programmes, had block development committees but they were only advisory bodies, set up to help and advise the staff posted in the blocks for the successful and speedy implementation of the Five-year Plan schemes. Subsequently, by the U. P. Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishads Adhiniyam, 1961, these committees were given a statutory recognition and wider executive and financial powers. The government also reorganised the local self governing system at the district level and enacted the U.P. Zila Parishads Act, 1958, under which the Antarim Zila Parishads were established in 1958 replacing the old district boards which had been set up during the British

period under the U. P. District Boards Act, 1922. With the passing of this Act and the subsequent Adhiniyam of 1961, the three-tier organisation of the *gaon* panchayats at the base, *kshettra samitis* in the middle and Zila Parishads at the apex, was introduced in the district.

Zila Parishad

For the management of local affairs beyond the municipal limits, a district board was constituted in 1883. Prior to this these affairs were looked after by the district committee. The U.P. District Boards Act, 1906, was enforced in 1906 and the constitution of the board was altered when the local or tahsil boards were abolished and the members were returned direct from each tahsil. The U. P. District Boards Act, 1922, was made applicable in 1922. The total number of members of the board then was 40, the number of seats reserved for Muslims being three and those for the Scheduled Castes seven. In 1958, the U. P. Antarim Zila Parishads Act, 1958, came into force. Instead of the district board, the local body was now called the Antarim Zila Parishad. With the passing of the U. P. Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishads Adhiniyam, 1961, the word '*antarim*' was dropped and the Zila Parishad came into existence.

The Zila Parishad is comprised of *pramukhs* and representatives of the *kshettra samitis*, the presidents of the municipal boards, representatives of the co-operative bank, representative of the co-operative institutions, members of the Lok Sabha, members of the Rajya Sabha, members of the Vidhan Parishad, members nominated by the government and also women and Scheduled Castes members. The normal term of the Zila Parishad and its members is five years but it may be extended by the State Government. The members of the Zila Parishad elect an *adhyaksh* and an *up-adhyaksh* for five years and one year respectively.

The functions of the Zila Parishad are comprehensive and include all those of the former district board, district planning committee and the Antarim Zila Parishad. They consist of the co-ordination of the activities of the development blocks, implementation of the inter-block schemes and utilisation of the funds allotted by the government for purposes of agriculture, animal husbandry, irrigation, co-operation, village and cottage industries, medical and public health services, cultural activities and welfare of children, young people and women. The major sources of the income of the Zila Parishad are government grants, taxes levied by it and fees from cattle pounds and cattle fairs. The main items of its expenditure are public works and medical and public health services. The total income of the Zila Parishad was Rs 47,49,444 and its expenditure Rs 45,87,573 during the year 1973-74.

The income and expenditure of the Zila Parishad for the last 10 years is given at the end of the chapter in Statements VIII (a) and VIII (b).

Kshettra Samitis

There were 16 *kshettra samitis*, one for every development block, in the district in 1974-75. With the enforcement of the U.P. Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishads Adhiniyam of 1961, the functions of the erstwhile block development committees devolved upon the newly established *kshettra samitis*. Each is constituted of all the *pradhans* of the constituent *gaon sabhas*, chairmen of the town area committees, presidents of the notified area committees lying within the block area, representatives of the co-operative institutions of the block and the members of the Zila Parishad who are elected from the block. All members of the lower house of the Central and State legislatures whose constituencies include any part of the block and all members of the upper house of the Central and State legislatures who have their place of residence in the block and all members of the Central and State legislatures whose place of residence is in the district in which the block is situated and who have chosen to represent the block, are ex-officio members of the *kshettra samitis*. The members of the *kshettra samiti* may also co-opt a certain number of women members and persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes and persons interested in planning and development provided they are registered as voters for the legislative assembly from any part of the block. The term of the *kshettra samiti* is five years. Its members elect the *pramukh* (the presiding officer) out of the voters list for the legislative assembly from the area included in the block and one senior *up-pramukh* and one junior *up-pramukh* from among themselves, all for a five-year term. The block development officer acts as the executive officer of the *kshettra samiti* which is responsible for the formulation and execution of the development schemes. The main activities of this body are the development of agriculture, live-stock and fisheries, construction of minor irrigation works, opening of health, maternity and child welfare centres, prevention and control of epidemics, promotion of cottage and village industries and co-operative institutions. Briefly speaking the *kshettra samiti* acts as a co-ordinating agency for all the *gaon sabhas* functioning within its jurisdiction. It is particularly responsible for the implementation of inter-village projects in the block area.

Gaon Panchayats

The villages in India were administered from ancient times by their panchayats which exercised administrative and judicial powers. The number of panchayats has varied from time to time. In 1949, when the U.P. Panchayat Raj Act was enforced in the district, there were 669 *gaon panchayats*. Their number increased with the population and in 1974-75 it was 1,280.

A *gaon sabha* is constituted for a village or group of villages with a minimum population of 250 persons and consists of all the adults of the

village. The *gaon panchayat*, which is the executive organ of the *gaon sabha*, has a *pradhan* (president) and an *up-pradhan* (vice-president), the former and the members of the *gaon panchayat* being elected initially by the adults of the *gaon sabha* for a term of five years, extendable by the government. The *up-pradhan* (vice-president) is elected by the members of the *gaon panchayat* for a term of one year. The number of members of the *gaon panchayat* is determined according to the population of the *gaon sabha* and generally ranges from 15 to 30.

The *gaon sabha* is intended to constitute the basis of an active and conscious peasant democracy which should not only integrate but also initiate all rural development policies and programmes. The functions of the panchayat include (among others) construction, repairs, cleaning and lighting of streets, sanitation, prevention of epidemics, upkeep and supervision of forests, waste lands, pastures, buildings and land or any other property of the *gaon sabha*, registration of births, deaths and marriages, regulation of markets and fairs, establishment of primary schools, provision of drinking water facilities and the welfare of children, the youth and women.

The main sources of income of a *gaon panchayat* are government grants, taxes collected by it and voluntary contributions by the local people. The total income of the *gaon panchayats* was Rs 4,56,690 during 1973-74. These panchayats incurred an expenditure of Rs 3,85,514 during 1973-74 on construction and development works.

Details regarding the achievements of the panchayats from 1969-70 to 1973-74 are given below :

Works	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74
Metalled roads constructed (in km.)	—	—	—	—	■
Unmetalled roads constructed (in km.)	17	8	12	74	16
Culverts constructed	7	1	6	—	24
Pakka drains constructed	4	2	—	—	3
Wells constructed	23	12	57	19	—
Wells repaired	34	17	3	—	33
Hand pumps installed	74	62	165	23	58
Primary school buildings constructed	3	—	7	—	2
Guls constructed (in metres)	360	220	165	242	500
Compost pits filled	1,165	1,320	980	1,212	1,612
Public latrines constructed	28	80	20	26	103

STATEMENT I (a)
Receipts (in Rupees) Municipal Board, Ghazipur

Reference Page No. 185

Year	Municipal rates and taxes	Realisation under special Acts	Revenue derived from municipal property, etc., other than taxes	Grants and contributions	Miscellaneous	Other sources	Total receipts
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1964-65	45,470	-	-	49,570	3,322	-	98,362
1965-66	1,54,794	-	-	2,48,406	5,669	-	4,08,869
1966-67	1,50,025	-	-	2,29,324	4,148	-	3,83,497
1967-68	1,66,048	-	-	2,51,333	12,433	-	4,29,814
1968-69	1,71,620	-	-	3,15,641	6,287	-	4,93,548
1969-70	1,90,489	-	-	4,92,574	5,919	-	6,88,982
1970-71	2,17,500	-	-	4,89,000	12,000	-	7,18,500
1971-72	2,33,655	-	-	5,15,523	12,224	-	7,61,402
1972-73	2,19,356	-	-	4,63,712	14,466	-	6,97,534
1973-74	9,11,617	-	-	2,18,019	58,260	-	4,87,896

STATEMENT I (b)
Expenditure (in Rupees), Municipal Board, Ghazipur

Reference Page No. 185

Year	General administration and collection charges	Public safety	Public health and convenience	Public instructions	Contributions	Miscellaneous	Other sources	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1964-65	*28,346	-	49,262	-	-	2,230	-	79,838
1965-66	61,704	-	1,28,240	-	-	6,106	-	1,96,050
1966-67	55,879	-	1,16,113	-	-	5,650	-	1,77,642
1967-68	64,343	-	1,60,061	-	-	9,366	-	2,33,770
1968-69	62,864	-	1,72,175	-	-	9,596	-	2,44,635
1969-70	62,516	-	1,90,021	-	-	9,770	-	2,62,307
1970-71	70,633	-	1,71,364	-	-	10,977	-	2,52,974
1971-72	82,688	-	2,63,498	-	-	17,903	-	3,64,089
1972-73	93,868	-	3,06,154	-	-	9,746	-	4,09,768
1973-74	1,11,622	-	4,08,287	-	-	23,463	-	5,40,372

STATEMENT II
Receipts and Expenditure, Town Area, Bahadurganj Reference Page No. 187

Year	Receipts (in Rupees)			Expenditure (in Rupees)					
	Government grants	Receipts from taxes	Other receipts	Total receipts	General administration and collection charges	Public health	Public works	Other expenditure	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1964-65	2,355	5,266	2,205	9,826	1,368	6,150	3,000	1,576	12,094
1965-66	7,110	5,637	1,423	14,173	1,273	4,988	2,682	1,889	10,832
1966-67	27,965	3,903	931	32,799	960	7,100	—	1,975	10,035
1967-68	36,817	2,763	3,095	42,675	1,494	7,821	28,829	3,199	41,343
1968-69	37,464	6,964	15,864	60,292	1,589	6,924	46,843	15,334	70,690
1969-70	52,114	3,834	3,118	59,066	1,777	9,745	28,876	9,212	49,610
1970-71	21,428	1,223	6,052	28,703	4,810	14,057	17,266	4,709	40,842
1971-72	15,763	4,662	4,778	25,203	4,204	16,674	14,082	4,188	39,148
1972-73	8,241	8,613	40,019	56,873	2,415	15,855	33,000	1,737	53,007
1973-74	50,318	25,745	6,121	82,184	1,914	40,467	30,000	5,582	82,963

STATEMENT III
Receipts and Expenditure, Town Area, Dildarnagar Reference Page No, 187

Year	Receipts (in Rupees)				Expenditure (in Rupees)				
	Government grants	Receipts from taxes	Other receipts	Total receipts	General administration and collection charges	Public health	Public works	Other expenditure	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1964-65	7,233	5,370	4,503	17,106	1,072	4,921	915	3,997	10,905
1965-66	33,130	4,550	6,629	44,309	1,203	5,235	10,993	2,487	19,918
1966-67	27,292	7,834	3,223	38,349	1,312	6,890	26,555	2,348	37,105
1967-68	32,534	5,055	7,289	44,878	1,485	7,900	27,264	1,677	38,326
1968-69	32,348	8,384	6,875	47,607	1,644	8,062	56,380	2,479	68,565
1969-70	24,257	10,083	5,266	39,606	2,102	9,030	41,041	3,414	55,587
1970-71	20,451	15,384	15,223	51,058	2,492	9,733	15,187	5,262	32,674
1971-72	15,068	14,568	10,335	39,971	2,751	14,655	17,105	8,568	43,079
1972-73	29,104	14,588	16,989	60,681	3,302	16,728	46,497	8,452	74,979
1973-74	24,312	18,066	8,571	50,949	5,505	23,247	1,215	8,552	38,519

STATEMENT IV
Receipts and Expenditure, Town Area, Saidpur
 Reference Page No. 187

Year	Receipts (in Rupees)			Expenditure (in Rupees)					
	Government grants	Receipts from taxes	Other receipts	Total receipts	General administration and collection charges	Public health	Public works	Other expenditure	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1964-65	10,457	14,319	10,858	35,634	2,266	16,310	9,649	6,158	34,383
1965-66	50,154	13,070	11,631	74,855	2,946	14,748	7,917	7,216	32,827
1966-67	35,320	17,314	12,928	65,562	3,506	16,586	21,129	11,949	53,170
1967-68	46,226	25,772	14,738	86,736	3,866	20,766	27,266	31,381	83,279
1968-69	30,026	16,913	18,158	65,097	4,436	23,465	50,327	15,878	94,106
1969-70	35,937	40,532	33,443	1,09,912	4,168	23,259	73,623	29,483	1,30,533
1970-71	22,665	29,982	16,944	69,591	4,316	26,189	628	33,617	64,750
1971-72	12,228	56,191	21,411	89,830	4,726	27,954	35,504	27,864	96,048
1972-73	34,973	30,875	17,867	83,715	6,638	40,032	16,036	33,949	96,655
1973-74	35,638	35,932	42,879	1,14,449	8,907	48,168	27,655	19,621	1,04,351

STATEMENT VI
Receipts and Expenditure, Town Area, Zamania Reference Page No. 187

Year	Receipts (in Rupees)				Expenditure (in Rupees)					
	Government grants	Receipts from taxes	Other receipts	Total receipts	General administration and collection charges	Public health	Public works	Other expenditure	Total expenditure	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1964-65	9,965	12,487	9,557	32,009	2,176	12,746	12,553	2,865	30,340	
1965-66	60,092	11,746	9,252	81,090	2,464	14,833	14,738	2,473	34,558	
1966-67	29,524	2,537	25,464	57,525	2,969	15,379	75,868	5,376	99,592	
1967-68	50,532	5,745	29,490	85,767	3,525	18,034	27,542	2,675	51,776	
1968-69	35,268	7,714	33,589	76,571	3,646	19,145	58,578	11,791	93,160	
1969-70	37,334	8,341	31,608	77,283	3,793	22,699	54,091	13,108	93,691	
1970-71	25,528	9,517	29,678	64,723	3,885	27,937	23,210	8,405	63,437	
1971-72	18,594	14,277	22,884	55,755	3,922	28,453	8,135	21,455	61,965	
1972-73	8,206	4,714	25,776	38,696	4,005	27,456	6,576	6,436	44,473	
1973-74	14,489	4,398	48,234	67,121	4,105	29,467	4,668	14,533	52,773	

STATEMENT VII

Receipts and Expenditure, Notified Area, Muhammadabad

Reference Page No. 187

Year	Receipts (in Rupees)				Expenditure (in Rupees)					
	Govern- ment grants	Receipts from taxes	Other receipts	Total receipts	General admin- istration and collec- tion charges	Public health	Public works	Other expen- diture	Total expenditure	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1964-65	17,695	15,217	11,879	44,791	4,089	17,414	9,244	2,903	33,550	
1965-66	58,319	20,088	14,902	93,309	4,515	20,645	12,171	9,498	46,829	
1966-67	59,304	23,027	21,179	1,03,510	7,339	28,436	39,675	15,285	90,735	
1967-68	50,638	20,052	36,957	1,07,707	7,841	26,090	63,963	40,643	1,38,537	
1968-69	48,804	7,408	82,724	1,38,936	8,152	33,261	73,551	60,721	1,75,685	
1969-70	1,11,858	52,390	24,840	1,89,088	17,964	35,170	12,068	1,27,963	1,93,165	
1970-71	99,019	96,670	42,775	2,38,464	36,984	45,939	17,455	1,18,686	2,19,064	
1971-72	58,591	1,10,028	30,452	1,99,071	34,178	54,282	55,811	65,264	2,09,535	
1972-73	64,882	1,51,314	96,881	3,13,077	45,764	71,812	1,04,251	1,00,262	3,22,089	
1973-74	99,108	1,24,081	1,27,179	3,50,368	60,305	73,970	95,339	89,577	3,19,191	

STATEMENT VIII (a)
Receipts (in Rupees), Zila Parishad

Year	Government grants	Education (including industrial and technical)	Medical and public health	Cattle pounds	Fair and exhibitions	Other income not covered under col. 2 to 6		Total receipt
						7	8	
1964-65	31,37,591	2,37,906	103	10,656	4,123	95,232	34,85,611	
1965-66	38,23,499	2,87,909	103	9,785	4,042	86,911	42,12,249	
1966-67	43,37,658	3,49,747	934	10,529	3,540	77,134	47,79,542	
1967-68	45,19,375	3,21,443	158	8,399	4,235	1,31,122	49,84,732	
1968-69	56,67,616	3,69,848	1,932	20,316	4,114	91,849	61,55,675	
1969-70	68,41,509	4,34,973	1,575	14,472	4,611	6,11,552	79,08,692	
1970-71	67,62,252	4,12,354	2,084	11,635	4,725	1,60,164	73,53,214	
1971-72	1,23,18,197	3,25,259	2,173	7,240	5,976	6,08,535	1,32,67,379	
1972-73	38,10,676	2,08,718	2,449	6,108	8,665	6,76,267	47,12,883	
1973-74	13,31,485	1,17,946	2,235	3,100	7,130	32,87,548	47,49,444	

STATEMENT VIII (b)
Expenditure (in Rupees), Zila Parishad

Reference Page No. 188

Year	General administration and collection charges	Education (including industrial and technical)	Medical and public health	Public works	Fair and exhibitions	Expenditure not covered under col. 2 to 6	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1964-65	43,463	28,76,848	72,795	1,30,154	3,168	1,24,127	32,50,555
1965-66	43,365	39,39,457	65,443	2,04,051	1,790	24,914	42,79,030
1966-67	42,579	43,38,731	87,334	4,94,445	3,611	83,050	50,49,750
1967-68	46,147	45,71,335	68,499	3,59,235	2,461	41,067	50,88,744
1968-69	51,021	47,08,999	84,259	9,98,920	1,557	4,26,785	62,71,441
1969-70	50,445	63,45,312	98,258	2,72,083	2,413	1,55,199	69,23,710
1970-71	68,448	60,70,393	1,05,596	4,77,623	3,561	3,01,228	70,26,849
1971-72	73,202	69,03,620	1,03,008	8,66,775	8,123	63,045	80,17,773
1972-73	97,288	45,06,674	1,20,801	26,81,388	9,672	1,80,731	75,96,544
1973-74	1,45,635	4,40,952	1,11,164	35,03,055	6,540	3,80,227	45,87,573

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

The literary tradition of the region covered by the present district of Ghazipur can be traced back to very early times. From the Vedic age onwards a number of *ashramas* (hermitages) came into being near the river Ganga where the great sages lived and performed their rites, religious observances and austerities, which developed into prominent strongholds of Vedic culture and learning. One of the biggest and most noted centres of learning was the *ashrama* of the sage, Jamdagni. Education was the principal instrument in the hands of these sages by means of which they handed down to the individual and to society the tradition, discipline and culture which they had gathered through long and continuous endeavours.

It is likely that in this region in ancient times (as elsewhere in India) education was more or less the concern of the family, the teachers and the scholars, the last being Brahmanas. The education of a child began at home after which it was continued in *gurukulas* and *ashramas* in the solitude of the forests where education was imparted to residential pupils at the home of individual teachers.

Regular studentship began with the ceremony of *upanayana* by which the teacher (*acharya*) invited the pupil, a *brahmachari*, into a new life, described as a second birth, by which he became a *dwija* (twice-born)¹. The new life had its own observances and rules for the pupils. A student was given, for a specific period in his early years, a regular training calculated to equip him to adjust himself to serve the community. The pupils were required to wear the skin of the black antelope (*karshman vasanah*), a girdle (*mekhala*) of *kusha* grass and to let their hair grow. It was the student's duty to help the teacher in his household and farm work. Begging (*bhiksha*) was also one of his duties. He had also to practise control of the senses (*shrama*) and certain austerities (*tapas*). His was thus a strictly regulated (*dikshita*) life.² *Brahmacharya* (celibacy) formed the basis of the entire educational system which entailed discipline of the mind and the body and was considered an essential prerequisite during the initial phase of life.³ Education was more or less the acquiring of a

1. Mookerji, R.K.: *Hindu Civilization*, Part I, p. 128

2. *Ibid.*, *op.cit.*, pp. 128-129

3. Altekar, A.S.: *Education in Ancient India*, pp. 260-261

knowledge of the religious books including the *Vedas* and such secular subjects as mathematics, *Ayurveda*, grammar, political economy (*arthashastra*), law and discipline (*dharmashastra*) and astrology (*jyotisha*), etc.¹ Though the method of memorising was generally adopted, great importance was also attached to the development of the intellect. A special ritual, *medhajanana* (fostering of the intellect), was performed for this purpose soon after the *upanayana* ritual of initiation when a prayer was offered for the endowment of virtues and for the all-round development of the pupil's intellect.²

One of the important features of the system was the creation of an intimate relationship between the teacher and the taught which was expected to inculcate in the latter the attitudes of obedience, service, austerity and purity of conduct. The period of studentship was normally twelve years but some times it was even fifteen or twenty years according to the talent and requirements of the pupil. After completing his education the pupil could give the teacher such presents as he could afford though the paid teacher and the paying student both were condemned.³ In those days education was for the sake of learning and spiritual advancement and was imparted with the best of care, was free of cost and of State control. The aims of learning are stated to be *shraddha* (faith), *medha* (retention of knowledge acquired), *praja* (progeny), *dhana* (wealth), *ayuh* (longevity) and *amritatva* (immortality) and comprehended success in both the secular and spiritual life.⁴

This system of education seems to have prevailed in the district with occasional modifications till about the advent of the Muslims. In course of time the system of imparting education under the direct guidance and personal contact of the teacher became traditional, the establishments where no fees were charged being called *gurukulas*. During the mediaeval period, these institutions degenerated into private *pathshalas* and in those institutions that were attached to temples, in addition to the subjects referred to above, Brahmana students were also initiated into preparation for priesthood. When the Muslims settled in this region, they established their own schools, called *maktabs* and *madarsas* which were mostly for Islamic learning and were attached to mosques.

On the eve of the British occupation of this region, children were still receiving their education (which was mainly religious in nature) in

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1. Mookerji, *op.cit.*, p. 128; Majumdar, R.C., Raychaudhari, H.C. and Datta, K.L. : *An Advanced History of India*, p. 51
 2. Altekar, *op. cit.*, p. 262
 3. Mookerji, *op. cit.*, pp. 197-198
 4. Mookerji, *op. cit.*, p. 129

indigenous schools—the Hindus in *pathshalas* and the Muslims in *maktabs*. These institutions were privately owned and run, receiving no financial aid from the government except occasional gifts and land. There were also some elementary schools in which reading, writing and a little arithmetic was taught. The trading classes provided their children mainly with vocational education. These indigenous institutions of education gradually gave way to governmental institutions which were started by the British and came to be known as tahsili and *halqabandi* or village schools. As time passed, Christian missionaries also opened many institutions and contributed appreciably to the expansion of education.

The report of 1847 on vernacular education showed that Ghazipur and Ballia had 389 indigenous schools with 3,139 pupils but nothing is said about their nature and efficiency. The first school in Ghazipur was started in 1836 and was a free school managed by a local committee, the government giving a grant of Rs 6,576 and the rest being raised by subscriptions but this school had to be abolished in 1849 due to the decline in its enrolment. In 1856 three tahsili schools were opened at Muhammadabad, Saidpur and Reotipur and in that year 45 *halqabandi* schools were also opened in the principal villages. A mission school was also started at Ghazipur town in 1853. In 1858, it had 145, the tahsili schools 156, the *halqabandi* schools 859 and the 92 indigenous schools 560 pupils making a total of 1,720. In 1860, a fourth tahsili school was established at Shadiabad and the next year two branch mission schools were also started at Ghazipur. Schools for girls were also started in 1864 but with little success. By 1868, the four tahsili schools had 341, the 85 *halqabandi* had 2,723, the 75 indigenous had 1,011 and the nine girls' schools had 130 pupils. There was a mission school with 348 pupils, the Victoria subscription school (started in 1865) with 202 and an anglo-vernacular subscription school at Pithapur with 71 pupils (which had an existence of one year only). During the next decade several changes occurred. An oriental high school (the Chashma-i-Rahmat) was started in Ghazipur in 1869 which is still functioning. In 1878, there were seven tahsili or pargana schools, 108 *halqabandi* schools with 3,314 on roll, six municipal schools, three girls' schools with 71 pupils, the mission school with 253 and its branch girls' school with 38 pupils respectively. There were also a number of indigenous schools. The number of public schools rose from 123 with 5,133 pupils in 1880-81 to 188 with 9,150 pupils in 1900-01. In 1903-04, there were 202 such schools with 10,773 pupils, of whom 457 were girls and 50 private schools with 457 pupils. In 1907-08, there were 339 schools with 17,253 male and 1,101 female students. The oldest institution of the district is the city school (now the government city intermediate college) which was started by the German Mission in 1885. Later it was taken over by the government and handed over to the State education department.

Prior to 1947, there used to be a circle inspector of schools for the supervision of education in a Division. The office of the district inspector of schools was established in the district in 1947 and since then education in the district has been supervised by this authority. When the Basic system of education was separated from higher secondary education in 1972, Basic education (both junior and senior) was placed under the supervision of the Basic *shiksha adhkari*, the girls' schools remaining under the supervision of the assistant regional inspectors of schools.

GROWTH OF LITERACY

The first attempt to collect the figures of literacy was made in 1881, when 4·8 per cent males and 0·9 per cent females were recorded as being able to read and write. In 1891, this percentage rose to 5·6 for males and 0·19 for females. In 1901, a negligible improvement was made when the percentage of literate males had increased to 6·2, females maintaining the same percentage of 0·2. The percentage of literacy among males and females of the district between 1911 and 1951 is given below :

Year	Percentage	
	Males	Females
1911	5·7	0·3
1921	8·4	0·5
1931	10·9	1·0
1951	18·8	3·7

By 1961, the percentage of literacy was 18·0 as against the State average of 17·7 when the district ranked 22nd in literacy in the State. The literacy percentage among males was 28·9 and among females 7·2. Of the total number of literates, 74·7 per cent had no educational standard, 19·2 per cent was of primary or junior Basic standard and 6·0 per cent of high school standard or above. The percentage of literacy of the rural population was 17·1 as against 43·9 of the urban population. In the rural area 27·8 per cent males and 6·5 per cent females and in the urban area 57·7 per cent males and 28·5 per cent females were literate as indicated in the following table :

Educational standard (1961)	No. of persons	
	Males	Females
Urban		
Literate (with no educational standard)	8,365	5,018
Primary or junior Basic	2,768	743
Matriculation or higher secondary	2,019	293
Technical diploma not equal to degree	3	--
University degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degree	348	47
Technical degree or diploma equivalent to degree or post-graduate level :	--	--
Engineering	7	--
Medicine	10	--
Agriculture	7	--
Teaching	153	1
Others	28	--
Rural		
Literate (without educational standard)	1,25,716	38,478
Primary or junior Basic	38,793	3,439
Matriculation and above	11,038	281

The percentages of literacy among males and females in the district at the census of 1971 were 30.75 and 9.29 respectively. That of the total population was 20.14 as compared to the State average of 21.70 in that year, the district lagging behind the State average. The percentage of literacy of the rural population was 19.07 as against 42.88 of the urban population. The proportion of literacy in the rural areas was 29.53 per cent males to 8.42 per cent females and in the urban areas 55.25 per cent males to 28.78 per cent females.

General Education

General education now includes education from the pre-junior Basic or nursery stage to the university stage. The pattern and system of education is almost uniform all over the State. The district had 955 junior Basic and 175 senior Basic schools in 1974-75, the number of higher secondary institutions being 73 and the number of institutions imparting higher education in Arts and Science subjects at the graduate and post-graduate level, 7.

The following statement gives the number of students in the various categories of schools in the district in 1975 :

Type of institution	No. of institutions	No. of students
Junior Basic	965	2,31,920
Senior Basic	163	32,803
Higher secondary	72	47,975
Degree colleges	7	3,774

Pre-junior Basic Stage

Pre-junior Basic education covers the education of children up to six years of age. There are only two pre-junior Basic schools in the district, the Lourdes Convent and the Montessori school, both situated in the town of Ghazipur with four women teachers and 297 students. The Lourdes Convent, which is a missionary institution, is run by the Queen of Apostles Society, Varanasi. The other school is managed by the district inspector of schools.

Junior and Senior Basic Stage

Education at the junior and senior Basic stages is based on the Wardha scheme of education (initiated by Mahatma Gandhi in 1937) which was adopted by the State Government with certain modifications in 1938. Although the idea of Basic education was placed before the country by Mahatma Gandhi in 1937, it could not gather strength before the coming of Independence. The term 'Basic' includes education at the junior Basic stage (from class I to V) and the senior Basic stage (from class VI to VIII). According to Mahatma Gandhi, education meant "an all round drawing out of the best in child and man—body, mind and spirit". The four fundamentals of this form of education are that free and compulsory education for seven years be provided by the State ; that the mother tongue be the medium of instruction ; that the process of education be centered round some useful handicraft enabling the child to produce from the moment it began its training ; and that every school be self-supporting.

Prior to 1972, education during both these stages was the responsibility of the local bodies in their own jurisdiction—the municipal board in the city or town and the Zila Parishad in the rural areas. The vernacular middle examination was held at the end of class VIII. In July, 1972, the supervision, maintenance and administrative control of these institutions was transferred to the board of Basic education following the re-organization of the educational set up under the Basic Shiksha Adhiniyam.

Control at the district level is vested in the *zila shiksha samiti* and at the village level in the *gaon shiksha samiti*. The district Basic education officer controls the Basic education at the district level.

The number of junior and senior Basic institutions located within the district with the figures of enrolment for each in 1974-75, are given below :

Institution for boys/girls	No. of schools		Enrolment	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Junior Basic				
Managed by Basic shiksha parishad	615	186	1,25,190	78,784
Aided by parishad	43	3	5,820	2,393
Unrecognised	107	—	7,896	5,325
State managed	—	1	58	185
Senior Basic				
Managed by Basic shiksha parishad	75	23	16,453	7,040
Aided by Basic shiksha parishad	22	2	3,307	378
Unrecognised	48	—	5,190	—
State managed	1	4	256	189

Secondary Education

Secondary education now covers education starting after the senior Basic stage and going up to the end of class XII. With the establishment of the board of high school and intermediate education, U.P., in 1921, the high school examination began to be held at the end of class X and the intermediate examination at the end of class XII. To encourage female education, the State Government has made girls' education free up to the high school, since January 1, 1965.

In 1975, the district had 72 higher secondary schools for boys and girls—five being for girls. There were 1,615 teachers (1,538 men and 77 women) in these schools and the total enrolment was 47,975 (boys 43,473 and girls 4,502). The number of schools and students from the junior Basic to the higher secondary stage is given in Statement A and the name and some other details about the higher secondary schools and the intermediate colleges are given in Statement B at the end of the Chapter.

Re-orientation Scheme

The re-orientation scheme aims at introducing agriculture as a compulsory craft in senior Basic schools and higher secondary institutions which are able to procure land for farming. There are 28 higher secondary and 27 senior Basic schools in the district where this scheme is functioning. There is one extension teacher in every school who is a government servant, and area of 326.54 acres of land has been attached to these institutions. The income for the year 1974-75 was Rs 63,749 and the expenditure Rs 42,183.

Higher Education

There are seven degree colleges in the district, two being in the town of Ghazipur and the remaining five in the rural areas, all affiliated to the Gorakhpur university.

The names and other particulars of the degree colleges are given below :

Name and location	Date of foundation	No. of teachers	No. of students	Faculties functioning
1. Degree College, Ghazipur	1957	89	2,209	Arts, Science Agriculture
2. Swami Sahjanand Saraswati Mahavidyalaya, Ghazipur	1972	11	293	Arts
3. Degree College, Khardiha	1973	7	151	Arts
4. Degree College, Malikpura	1973	9	309	Arts
5. Mahantha Ramashrya Das Degree College, Bhurkura	1972	■	250	Arts
6. Mahatma Gandhi Sati Satabdi Smarak Degree College, Garua Maqsoodpur	1972	9	118	Arts
7. Hindu Degree College, Zamania	1957	13	444	Arts, Science

EDUCATION OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND OTHER BACKWARD CLASSES

Under the lead given by Mahatma Gandhi a programme for the educational improvement of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes had been taken up as early as 1937. After the attainment of Independence this programme was intensified and numerous benefits and incentives such as exemption from tuition fees, stipends,

scholarships, financial assistance for the purchase of books and stationery, free hostel facilities and the relaxation of the upper age limit for admission to certain educational institutions, began to be provided by the State Government. The students belonging to these groups are exempted from payment of fees up to class X.

The following table shows the number of students of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes who were attending the different categories of schools in the district in 1974-75 :

Type of school	Scheduled Castes		Other Backward Classes		Total
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Junior Basic	27,084	11,575	63,041	51,013	1,52,713
Senior Basic	3,250	264	10,089	4,364	17,967
Higher secondary	5,847	133	16,705	1,215	23,900

Professional and Technical Education

In the post-Independence period, great emphasis was laid on vocational education and as a result many professional and technical institutions were opened in the district. There are two government normal schools for boys and one for girls in the district. One of the normal schools for boys is located at Saidpur and the other at the headquarters of the district. The girls' normal school is located in the town of Ghazipur. These schools prepare teachers for teaching in Basic schools. The duration of training is one year and a certificate is awarded after the successful completion of the prescribed training. The number of students in the normal schools for boys was 198 and that in the girls' normal school 100. Bachelor of education classes are also attached to the Ghazipur degree college, which prepares teachers for secondary schools and awards the degree of bachelor of education. There are 137 students and one woman and six men teachers in the college. The duration of the course is one year.

There are two homoeopathic medical colleges in the district. The Ghazipur homoeopathic medical college is located in the town (Ghazipur) and the other is at Malikpura. Both are run by private management committees. They are recognised by the State homoeopathic medical board, Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow. The duration of the course is 4 years and the diploma of bachelor of medicine and surgery is awarded to successful candidates. There are 590 students and 21 whole-time and 12 part-time teachers in these institutions. Hospitals are also attached to these colleges where students get practical training.

There is one industrial training institution which started functioning in February, 1965. It is run by the directorate of training and employment under the government of Uttar Pradesh and imparts training in various trades. Among other subjects, training is given in building construction, the work of fitter, grinder and draughtsman (mechanic), electroplating, electricity, surveying, radio mechanics, farm mechanics, turning and tool and die making, blacksmithy, welding, bookbinding, cutting and tailoring, embroidery, knitting and weaving, printing and the manufacturing of leather goods. The duration of the training is from one to two years. The trainees are awarded a National Trade Certificate on the successful completion of their training. A stipend of Rs 25 per month is awarded to 33.5 per cent of the trainees. There are 240 trainees in the institution.

Another technical institution which is run by the board of technical education, U. P., Lucknow, awards the secondary technical school certificate to successful trainees. The duration of the training is three years and 60 students are selected for this training. The subjects taught are Hindi, English, Mathematics, Science and General Engineering.

Oriental Education

Sanskrit—The Sanskrit *pathshalas* in the district are affiliated to the Varanaseya Sanskrit Vishvavidyalaya, Varanasi. They impart education in Sanskrit literature, *vyakarana* (grammar) and other subjects. The examinations conducted are the *purva*, *madhyama*, *uttara madhyama* and *acharya*.

Arabic and Persian—There are three Arabic *madarsas* in the district. They are under the control of the inspector of Arabic *madarsas*, U.P., Allahabad, and prepare students for examinations conducted by the registrar, oriental examinations, U.P.

Physical Education

Physical education forms part of the curriculum of almost all the educational institutions in the district and it is compulsory up to the senior Basic stage. Mass physical exercises and displays are the main features of the regional meet every year. Students are also trained in social and cultural activities at the time of the annual rallies when competitions in games and sports are organised. Training under the auspices of the national cadet corps and the Bharat scouts and guides association is given in a number of higher secondary institutions. There are 11 n. c. c. wings attached to the higher secondary institutions and degree colleges.

Social Education

The work of adult and social education is carried on mostly on a voluntary basis. A subdeputy inspector of schools is in charge of adult education in the district who is attached to the Basic *shiksha* *adhi*kari.

There are 60 adult schools for males in the district which impart education to villagers in the evening. Teachers of Basic schools are appointed to work in these institutions and are paid for this part-time job. The work of social education and of organising various types of camps is carried out through the block agencies.

FINE ARTS

Folk-Songs and Folk-Dances

Being an ancient town and having attracted people of varying talents, tastes and aptitudes, the arts of music and dancing were able to develop in Ghazipur. Popular varieties of folk-songs are to be heard throughout the district such as the Kajali, Chaiti, Purbi, Hori (or Phaag) and Alha, which are popular as well and are sung at different times of the year. The singing of *bhajans* (religious songs) and sacred songs (*kirtans*) in chorus to the accompaniment of musical instruments is to be found all over the district.

Open air performances, combining the rural style of folk music and dancing are a regular feature of rural life in the district. *Nautankis* and dramas based on mythology are often staged and attract large gatherings, particularly in the villages.

Libraries and Reading-rooms

There are several libraries and reading-rooms in the district which contribute to improvement in the literary and educational advancement of the people. The Kavindra Ravindra, Swami Vivekanand Smarak Pustakalayas in Gorabazar and the Nagari Pracharini Sabha Pustakalaya on Mahatma Gandhi road, Ghazipur, are the most well-known public libraries of the district. Gayatri Gyan Bhandar Pustakalaya and Vachanalaya, Bhuwalchak, and Tulsi Manas Sangh Pustakalaya, Dharanagar, Muhammadabad, are also considered to be libraries with good collections of different kinds of books. Reading-rooms are also run by block development organizations, particularly in the villages.

Men of Letters

Hindi—The poet Usman, one of the earliest known men of letters of this region, flourished in the 17th century and is said to have been a contemporary of Jehangir. He was a well-known saint and Sufi and was the son of Shaikh Hussain. His poems appear in his famous book, *Chittravali*, which is said to have been written in the style of the famous poet, Jayasi.

The district is proud of having produced the great literary figure, Shiva Narayan, who belongs to the 18th century. He wrote about twelve books and among them *Lal Grantha*, *Santavilasa*, *Santachari*, *Santopdesha*, *Santa Vichara* and *Shabdavali* are the most famous. Kamaleshwar Kayastha, who belongs to the later half of the 19th century, is also remem-

bered as one of the literary figures of the district. He is famous for his work *Satya Narayana*. He died in 1911.

Ram Charit Upadhyaya, a great scholar of Sanskrit and Hindi, is also a renowned figure of the district where he was born in 1872. He wrote many books among which is *Ram Charit Chintamani*, the most famous of his works. His poems have been published in the magazine *Saraswati*, *Rashtra Bharati*, *Devadoot*, *Devata* and *Bharat Bhakti* are the most remembered poems composed by him.

Gopal Ram Gahamara (born in 1856 in village Gahmar) was a famous detective novel writer of the district. He also wrote other types of novels. *Chatura Chanchala*, *Madhavi*, *Kankara*, *Bhanamati*, *Saubhadra*, *Naye Babu* and *Main aur Mera Data* are his main works. He also wrote poetry and some of his books of poetry are *Chitrangad*, *Sona Shataka* and *Vasant Vikas*.

Rameshvar Dayal, who was born in 1857, is famous for his book *Chitrugupta Charitra*. He belonged to village Saraiya and died in 1899. Kauleshwar Lal Kayastha, who was born in village Madara, is also looked upon as one of the literary persons of the district. His chief works are *Satyanarayana Katha*, *Ram Shabdavali*, *Sarita Varnan* and *Kavimala*.



STATEMENT A

Reference : Page No. 207

General Education

Year	Junior Basic education				Senior Basic education				Higher secondary education			
	No. of schools		No. of students		No. of schools		No. of students		No. of schools		No. of students	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1967	766	189	1,19,484	53,803	105	17	18,771	3,335	52	3	28,410	2,069
1968	755	189	1,27,440	66,492	109	21	20,189	4,360	53	3	29,718	2,300
1969	709	173	1,25,554	73,271	111	20	21,515	5,814	55	4	33,108	2,791
1970	728	193	1,32,930	75,226	118	27	22,527	6,920	57	4	35,300	2,984
1971	762	208	1,42,557	81,057	124	33	23,360	7,632	59	4	38,643	3,726
1972	739	190	1,46,481	89,043	125	29	35,654	5,512	61	4	29,766	1,290
1973	739	191	1,38,404	88,405	141	32	24,835	8,413	63	5	40,726	3,760
1974	765	190	1,37,939	86,777	146	29	25,197	8,139	67	5	41,286	4,159
1975	763	202	1,40,447	91,473	144	19	25,173	7,630	67	5	43,473	4,502
1976	802	202	1,43,967	97,211	149	19	29,513	7,699	69	5	43,703	4,847

STATEMENT B
Higher Secondary Schools and Intermediate Colleges

Reference Page No. 207

Institution (present status)	Year of estab- lishment	Founder	Upgrading from high school with year	No. of students in 1974	No. of teachers
1	2	3	4	5	6
Government City Inter- mediate College, Ghazipur	1815	German Missionary	High School-1923, Intermediate-1950	1,299	55
Intermediate College, Suhwal	1949	Udaya Narain Rai	High School-1949, Intermediate-1954	571	17
M. A. H. Intermediate College, Ghazipur	1933	M. A. B. Educational Association, Ghazipur	High School-1948, Intermediate-1966	1,066	38
D. A. V. Intermediate College, Ghazipur	1912	Arya Mahasabha, Ghazipur	High School-1935, Intermediate-1950	525	21
Intermediate College, Khalaspur	1948	--	High School-1951, Intermediate-1955	829	27
Intermediate College, Muhammabad	1937	--	High School-1947, Intermediate-1949	864	29
Intermediate College, Khardiha	1951	Brij Mangal Rai	High School-1951, Intermediate-1960	742	27

1	2	3	4	5	6
Intermediate College, Machhati	1946	Sher Muhammad Khan	High School-1950, Intermediate-1953	624	26
Intermediate College, Karimuddinpur	1947	Baba Raghav Das	High School-1949, Intermediate-1953	428	18
Intermediate College, Gandhinagar	1948	—	High School-1949, Intermediate-1951	960	30
Intermediate College, Hartmanpur	1947	Roman Catholic Church, Varanasi	High School-1949, Intermediate-1955	648	21
Intermediate College, Dhotari	1948	—	High School-1963, Intermediate-1967	542	18
Intermediate College, Qasimabad	1948	—	High School-1949, Intermediate-1966	721	26
Intermediate College, Bahadurganj	1948	Badri Prasad	High School-1952, Intermediate-1966	919	37
Intermediate College, Gangauli	1954	—	High School-1960, Intermediate-1970	718	26
Intermediate College, Mohanpura	1950	—	High School-1953, Intermediate-1965	1,013	31
Intermediate College, Mardaha	1947	—	High School-1949, Intermediate-1953	1,393	44
Intermediate College, Jangipur	1947	Shiva Kumar Shastri	High School-1955, Intermediate-1966	1,284	37

(contd.)

1	2	3	4	5	6
Intermediate College, Malikpura	1956	Rbagwan Singh	High School-1959, Intermediate-1965	1,571	41
Intermediate College, Munkura	1947	Ram Baran Das	High School-1947, Intermediate-1951	1,120	21
Intermediate College, Bapu Sadat	1949	—	High School-1950, Intermediate-1969	648	27
Intermediate College, Govind Sadat	1951	—	High School-1954, Intermediate-1958	541	22
Intermediate College, Basupur	1947	Baba Raghav Das	High School-1948, Intermediate-1958	592	23
Intermediate College, Saidpur	1946	Baba Shyam Das	High School-1949, Intermediate-1951	850	37
Intermediate College, Bamnauli	1950	—	High School-1967, Intermediate-1972	750	25
Intermediate College, Siyavan	1960	Ram Karan Singh	High School-1964, Intermediate-1970	673	21
Intermediate College, Uchauri	1951	—	High School-1956, Intermediate-1970	751	24
Intermediate College, Athagan	1959	—	High School-1961, Intermediate-1970	551	22
Intermediate College, Nandganj	1949	Ram Karan Singh	High School-1950, Intermediate-1955	559	18

(Contd.)

1	2	3	4	5	6
Intermediate College, Karanda	1941	Ram Karan Singh	High School-1949, Intermediate-1951	972	27
S. K. V. M. Intermediate College, Dildarnagar	1938	Said Khan	High School-1946, Intermediate-1949	858	36
Adarsh Intermediate College, Dildarnagar	1947	Raghunath Prasad	High School-1950, Intermediate-1952	1,536	57
Intermediate College, Jeevapur	1958	—	High School-1966, Intermediate-1972	669	19
Intermediate College, Betawar	1963	—	High School-1965, Intermediate-1973	719	19
Intermediate College, Zamania	1942	—	High School-1948, Intermediate-1951	1,695	43
Intermediate College, Malasa	1941	Haridwar Rai	High School-1947, Intermediate-1952	760	27
Intermediate College, Dedhagavan	1963	—	High School-1965, Intermediate-1972	500	20
Intermediate College, Reotipur	1948	—	High School-1948, Intermediate-1945	756	33
Intermediate College, Navali	1954	—	High School-1960, Intermediate-1972	686	21
Intermediate College, Gahamar	1945	Ram Yash Singh	High School-1948, Intermediate-1953	1,319	40

(contd.)

	2	3	4	5	
Intermediate College, Bara	1948	Tajamud Hussain Khan	High School-1966, Intermediate-1972	598	21
Intermediate College, Daudpur	1949	Aditya Prasad	High School-1965, Intermediate-1967	401	18
Intermediate College, Fatehullapur	1965	Marjad Tiwari	High School-1968, Intermediate-1971	2,718	7
Intermediate College, Lachchhipur	1964	—	High School-1970, Intermediate-1973	542	17
Intermediate College, Deokali	1951	Hanuman Singh	High School-1959, Intermediate-1974	664	17
Intermediate College, Mahuwa Bagh	1965	—	High School-1969, Intermediate-1974	772	18
Intermediate College, Veerpur	1949	—	High School-1964, Intermediate-1974	497	11
Intermediate College, Jwabannagar	1961	Ram Swarup Singh	High School-1963, Intermediate-1975	452	16
Intermediate College, Yaufpur	1958	Dr M. A. Ansari Memorial Society	High School-1960 Intermediate-1975	997	27
Government Girls Intermediate College, Ghazipur	1931	Jawahar Lal Sinha	High School-1948, Intermediate-1953	1,329	37

(contd.)

1	2	3	4	5	6
Government Girls Intermediate College, Dildarnagar	1965	—	High School-1965, Intermediate-1972	227	20
Higher Secondary School, Balapur	1951	R. C. Lal	High School-1964	366	12
Higher Secondary School, Sherpur	1959	—	High School-1965	438	12
Higher Secondary School, Godaur	1963	—	Intermediate-1970	456	14
Higher Secondary School, Amarapur	1964	—	Intermediate-1973	298	8
Higher Secondary School, Parasa	1958	—	High School-1972	316	11
Higher Secondary School, Bhala Nonahara	1964	—	High School-1971	244	9
Higher Secondary School, Saghapur	1964	—	High School-1965	410	15
Higher Secondary School, Shadiyabad	1965	—	High School-1968	333	16
Higher Secondary School, Bahariyabad	1949	—	High School-1950	395	17
Higher Secondary School, Mala Palivar	1961	—	High School-1974	208	8
Higher Secondary School, Shivadas Sadat	1970	—	High School-1973	553	14

(contd.)

1	2	3	4	5	6
Higher Secondary School, Mirzapur	1969	—	High School-1975	173	8
Higher Secondary School, Mitari	1961	—	High School-1973	358	13
Higher Secondary School, Rampur Majha	1960	—	High School-1965	649	17
Higher Secondary School, Goshaadepur	1959	—	High School-1967	179	15
Higher Secondary School, Gorakha	1969	Jashwant Rao Trust	High School-1972	360	16
Higher Secondary School, Fuli	1964	Aditya Lal	High School-1971	269	11
Higher Secondary School, Pacholkhar	1958	—	High School-1960	127	8
Higher Secondary School, Nagasar	1956	—	High School-1975	402	16
Higher Secondary School, Tarighat	1965	—	High School-1973	449	7
Convent Higher Secondary School, Ghazipur	1951	Queen of Apostles Society, Lucknow	High School-1965	209	9
Government Girls' Higher Secondary School, Muhammabad	1966	State of U. P.	High School-1972	147	14
Government Girls' Higher Secondary School, Zamania		State of U. P.	—	209	14

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

Medical Facilities in Early Times

No direct reference is available to the medical facilities and systems of medicine prevailing in the district in ancient times. The physicians of primitive times, except for the rare, scholarly ones, were mostly quacks, priests and magicians (usually all in one) and such persons are still to be found, especially in the rural areas, and sometimes work wonders though such occasions are rare. Diseases were often attributed to sin, crime, vice and disobedience of religious laws and the cures prescribed were the offering of prayers, fasting, animal sacrifice and invocation to deities and supernatural powers.

Ayurveda, which literally means the science of life, is the earliest known system of medicine and it still prevails in the district for treating physical ailments. Physicians of this system, known as *vaid*s, specialized in diagnosing disease by observing the pulse and use herbs, *bhasma* (ashes of certain metals such as gold and iron) pearls and certain amalgams and various other ingredients in the preparation of their medicines. Affluent people of charitable disposition extended financial help to such physicians and looked after their material comforts out of piety and the *vaid*s in their turn did not charge fees from the poor, taking it to be a part of their pious duty to attend to their ailments free of charge.

During Muslim rule, the Unani system of medicine, based on the Arabic and Greek systems, was introduced into the Country and must have found its way into the district. Practitioners of this system of medicine are known as *hakims*. *Jarrahs* (barber surgeons) took to surgery and became known for the treatment of sores. The art of surgery was also known in early times. In his *Arthashastra*, Kautilya has referred to post-mortem examinations, which shows that surgery was also quite advanced.

With the establishment of British rule, the allopathic system of medicine was introduced by the government but in spite of the unhealthiness of the climate and the crying need for medical assistance in the outlying tracts, no allopathic dispensary was instituted in the district till 1850. The sadar dispensary is the oldest dispensary in the district which was started before 1857 although a building was constructed in 1881. Shortly after 1857, a branch dispensary was opened at Pirnagar (or Gora Bazar) and remained in existence till 1903. The dispensary at Saidpur was established in 1868, that at Zamania in 1886, the dispensary for females at Ghazipur

in 1889 and that at Muhammadabad in 1899. Besides tahsil hospitals, there was a police hospital at the headquarters and a railway dispensary at Saidpur. Travelling dispensaries started functioning in the district in July 1911 which popularised vaccinations to some extent but were more serviceable during the prevalence of cholera, malaria, influenza and smallpox in epidemic form. They offered medical aid and distributed medicines to the people of those tracts only which were not within easy reach of the permanent dispensaries and came under the control of the civil surgeon in 1914. Gradually the allopathic system took precedence over the Ayurvedic and the Unani because it was the system patronised and given advancement and support by the government, so that the people began to favour it also to the disadvantage of the indigenous systems.

Vital Statistics

An examination of the vital statistics of the district reveals that the birth-rate has always been higher than the death-rate although there have been greater fluctuations in the latter. Both have declined considerably in recent years. The figures are not very reliable as there were possibly large-scale omissions in the registration of births and deaths but they are indicative of the general trend. The average death-rate remained low till 1878. From 1881 to 1890 the annual average death-rate was 27.72 per thousand, although this figure was higher than in the adjoining districts of Jaunpur and Ballia. The ensuing decade (from 1891 to 1900) showed an average death-rate of 28.01 per thousand. From 1901 to 1906 (inclusive) the rate averaged 39.09 per thousand, this increase being due to the terrible ravages of plague and also in part to an excessive mortality from fever, particularly in 1903 and 1905, the death-rate in the latter year reaching the very high figure of 65.38. During the decades from 1910 to 1940, the average death-rates were 45.67 in the first decade, 27.00 in the second and 19.01 in the third. Between 1941 and 1950 the average death-rate per thousand was 15.7. During the fifties the maximum number of deaths was 11.79 males and 9.79 females in 1951 and the minimum 5.80 males and 4.52 females in 1960.

During the decade 1881 to 1890, the number of births averaged 34.07 per thousand and in the following ten years the average was 28.97. The latter figure may be ascribed mainly to the unhealthiness of several years. Such a small excess of births over deaths necessarily precluded any marked increase in the population, although the decline that became apparent in 1891 was due in the main to the large volume of emigration. In 1904, the birth-rate rose to 47.44 per thousand and in 1910 it fell to 27.88 per thousand. Between 1911 and 1920 the maximum birth-rate per thousand was 43.17 in 1914, the minimum being 27.23 in 1919. During 1921-30 the average birth-rate was 30.1, in 1931-40 it was 33.7 and in 1941-50 it was

25.8. Between 1951 and 1960 the maximum births were 9.20 males and 7.26 females in 1959 and the minimum were 6.93 males and 5.78 females in 1957. The following statement gives the total number of births and deaths between 1966 and 1972 :

Year	No. of births	No. of deaths
1966	18,749	9,679
1967	21,192	10,454
1968	20,377	8,304
1969	1,380	179
1970	3,132	598
1971	4,024	963
1972	1,331	390

Infant Mortality

Infant mortality refers to deaths of children of less than one year of age and 'infant death-rate' may be defined as the number of infant deaths that occur per thousand live births in one calendar year and when only live births and infant deaths are taken into account.

The largest number of children die in their very first year but the risk of death in infants decreases as time passes. The infant faces the greatest risk in the first few weeks of his life. Deaths in early infancy are to a great extent due to such causes as birth injuries, congenital malformation, etc., and in later periods to infection and parasitic diseases. The rate of mortality among children below one year in age was alarming till 1951. From 1956 to 1960 the maximum infant mortality was 1,056 in 1959 and the minimum was 691 in 1960. The position has improved in recent years, the figures being as follows :

Year	No. of infant deaths
1966	1,279
1967	1,131
1968	951
1969	23
1970	66
1971	115
1972	32

Common Diseases

The main diseases that are common in the district and account for the mortality of the people are fevers of all types, respiratory diseases, diarrhoea, dysentery, cholera, plague and smallpox which appear periodically and have been endemic in the past but which are now showing a declining trend due to the measures adopted by government.

Fever—Fever of various types is the most prevalent disease and a major cause of death in this district. The term is comprehensive in its application, including most diseases in which fever is merely a symptom and which do not obviously come under any other easily recognisable head. Malarial fever is extremely prevalent and is responsible for a larger number of deaths than any other disease. There are considerable variations in the annual figures as the percentage is always higher in a wet year and the same happens when the vitality of the people is lowered by malnutrition, scarcity or famines. Thus the mortality was unusually small in 1883, the last of three unusually dry years; and a similar state of things was observed in 1902, which again followed on a defective monsoon. The greatest recorded mortality from this disease occurred in the wet seasons of 1886, 1894, 1900 and 1905. For the ten years which ended in 1890 the average was 23,944 or 85.11 per cent of the total mortality. In the next decade it was 24,455 or 83.58 per cent. Between 1901 and 1910 the minimum deaths from fever were 21,985 in 1910 and the maximum 27,461 in 1909. In the next decade the highest number of deaths was 34,616 in 1918. In 1921 there were 24,296 deaths and in 1927 the lowest number was 9,539. Between 1941 and 1950 the number of deaths from fever was 12,345. Between 1951 and 1960 the maximum number of deaths was 29,068 in 1951 and the minimum 4,944 in 1960.

With the improvement of medical and health services deaths from fever have declined, as indicated in the following statement :

Year	No. of deaths from fever
1966	5,554
1967	6,399
1968	5,447
1969	Not available
1970	346
1971	562
1972	167

Dysentery and Diarrhoea

These diseases occur in the form of bowel and stomach complaints. The incidence is attributed mostly to insanitary conditions and unsatisfactory arrangements for drinking water. Sometimes dysentery is the result of malarial fever also. With the strict enforcement of sanitary measures such as disinfecting and cleaning of wells and drinking water sources, the incidence of these diseases has decreased. In the last decade of the last century the highest number of deaths from bowel complaints was 704 in 1894 and the lowest 75 in 1898. During 1901 and 1910, the highest mortality was 251 in 1901 and in the second decade of this century it was 11 in 1911. Between 1921 and 1930, the highest number of deaths from bowel complaints was 66 in 1930. The average yearly mortality from dysentery and diarrhoea in the district during 1941-50 was 106. From 1951 to 1960 the maximum deaths were 383 in 1951 and the minimum 214 in 1959. The number of deaths due to bowel disorders from 1966 to 1972 is given below :

Year	No. of deaths from bowel complaints
1966	412
1967	232
1968	133
1969	Not available
1970	15
1971	24
1972	23

Respiratory Diseases—These diseases generally lead to temporary or permanent infirmities and in a few cases they hasten death. The average yearly mortality from respiratory diseases in the district during 1941 and 1950 was 162. During 1951 and 1960, the maximum deaths were 646 in 1951 and the minimum 88 in 1960. The mortality from 1966 to 1972 was as given below :

Year	No. of deaths from respiratory diseases
1966	270
1967	173
1968	146
1969	Not available
1970	43
1971	82
1972	71

Epidemics—Should an epidemic break out in any part of the district, it becomes the duty of the municipal board concerned to arrange for special medical aid and accommodation for the sufferers and to take measures to control the epidemic. Smallpox, cholera and plague took a heavy toll of life in the district till the enforcement of the Vaccination Act of 1880, which made primary vaccination compulsory. The district medical officer of health takes orders from the district magistrate during the prevalence of an epidemic. The Epidemic Diseases Act of 1897 empowers the district magistrate to remove patients to hospitals, segregate them, disinfect infected dwellings and to evacuate infected houses and localities, etc.

Smallpox—Smallpox is a formidable disease which takes many lives whenever it visits a place and sometimes assumes the form of an epidemic. It has been estimated that smallpox might have been prevalent for more than 1,500 years in Uttar Pradesh.¹ Though smallpox is never entirely absent in the district, its ravages have been minimised after the enforcement of the Act making vaccination compulsory for children in urban area. The great epidemic of 1878 and the following year caused at least 6,500 deaths but since then the only outbreaks of any magnitude have been those of 1884 and 1890-91. The improvement in this connection is illustrated by the decennial average, the number of deaths from 1881 to 1890 being 382, for the next ten years 306 and from 1901 to 1906 approximately 35 annually. In the second decade of this century the maximum number of deaths from this disease was 1,120 in 1920 and in the third decade the highest incidence caused by an epidemic was 915 in 1930. The average yearly mortality in the district during 1941-50 was 2,012. Between 1951 and 1960 the maximum loss of lives was 2,298 in 1958. Only a few cases are reported now and there has been an appreciable decrease in the district in the incidence of this disease during the last ten years due to the launching of the national smallpox eradication programmes.

Cholera—The spread of cholera has been closely associated with fairs and festivals. Pilgrims often hail from endemic areas and spread the disease. Fairs also become the starting point of cholera due to the large number of people using the precincts of the fairs in a very insanitary and unhygienic manner. The swarms of flies that infest the countryside at the beginning of the hot weather and during the monsoon are also at times transmitters of the disease in the district. The spread of the disease helped by the gatherings of numerous marriage parties and feasting. Fatigue and excessive heat are also predispositions to cholera infection.

1. *Report on the State of Health of Uttar Pradesh with Particular Reference to Certain Diseases*, p. 53, (Lucknow, 1961)

Cholera appears to be endemic in the Ghazipur district and from 1881 to 1906 (inclusive) it accounted for 4.04 per cent of the total mortality. On three occasions only was the number of deaths less than 200 while in the remaining period of 13 years did it exceed a thousand. Occasionally the disease assumed a violent epidemic character and in this period there were at least six occasions when more than 3,000 persons were carried off by it, the highest figure being 3,962 in 1900. Between 1901 and 1920, it took the form of an epidemic in 1903 and in 1905, when the number of deaths reported was 2,156 and 3,429 respectively and in 1906 and 1918 it was 1,890 and 2,728 respectively. It reappeared in 1921 and 1924 and took 5,009 and 1,614 lives respectively and again in 1928 and 1929 when 1,142 and 2,987 lives were lost respectively. The average yearly mortality from cholera in the district during 1941-50 was 2,012. Between 1951 and 1960 it broke out only in 1957 claiming 790 lives. After 1960 very few cases were reported. The mortality has been decreasing considerably due to the provision of a good water-supply, mass inoculations, disinfection of wells and improved sanitary arrangements.

Plague—Plague has existed in India from the earliest times. The disease was not only recognised but was associated with rats and people were warned to quit their houses as soon as rat droppings were observed (as mentioned in the *Bhagvata Purana*). In those early periods the transmission of the disease from rats to men was supposed to be through the inhalation of contaminated air. Plague first made its appearance in 1900, when a single imported case occurred in a village on the Ballia border, six more cases being reported in the following year. In 1902 the reported deaths aggregated 23 but were still confined to the same locality. At the close of 1903, three more villages were attacked and in the ensuing January a few cases occurred in the town of Ghazipur. The disease then spread with alarming rapidity and by the end of 1904 had obtained a complete hold over the district, the number of deaths for that year being 13,080. The figure rose to 20,128 in 1905 but in the following year the number of recorded deaths was 1,413. In 1907 the disease broke out once more with renewed virulence and during the first nine months of the year, 11,553 deaths were recorded. The epidemic reappeared in the district in 1911 when the fatal cases were 13,874, in 1914 when they were 12,561 and again in 1917 and 1918 when they were 14,953 and 15,197 respectively.

In the third decade of this century the maximum number of deaths was 9,051 in 1927. The average yearly mortality in the district during 1941 and 1950 was 2,012. Between 1951 and 1960 the maximum number reported in 1951 was 9,068. After 1961 no case was reported till 1975. Attempts at prevention are made by the destruction of rats, giving of anti-plague inoculations, disinfection of houses and other precautions.

Other Diseases—Insanity, ear and eye diseases, leprosy, tuberculosis and venereal diseases have prevailed in the district for a long time. Efforts were made by the government in all the Five-year Plan periods to improve environmental conditions which have helped to some extent in decreasing the incidence of these diseases.

ORGANISATIONAL SET-UP

Prior to 1948 there were separate departments for medical and public health activities but they were amalgamated in that year under a directorate for better cohesion and control over the allopathic, Ayurvedic and Unani institutions and services. In July, 1961, a separate directorate was established at Lucknow for the development and effective supervision of Ayurvedic and Unani institutions and services. The local administration of these institutions, however, remained in the charge of the district medical officer of health, now designated deputy chief medical officer (health).

Formerly the civil surgeon and the district medical officer of health headed the medical and public health organisations respectively in the district. In July, 1973, the departments of medical and public health were reorganised in the State, the posts of civil surgeon and district medical officer of health being abolished. In that year, under the new set-up, a chief medical officer was appointed in the district who heads the entire medical, public health and family planning set-up. He is assisted by three deputy chief medical officers. In the urban circle at the district headquarters, the superintendent of the district hospital (male) and the women's hospital are the controlling authorities of medical health and family planning activities in their respective institutions. The entire supervision of health and family planning activities is under the control of the chief medical officer.

At the district headquarters, the municipal medical officer of health is responsible for the public health activities. The rural area has been divided among the three deputy chief medical officers for all medical, health and family planning work.

The public health centres in the rural areas are equally distributed among the deputy chief medical officers. The rural State dispensaries fall under the primary health centres and are also under the deputy chief medical officer concerned.

At the level of the primary health centre, a medical officer is in overall charge of the medical, health and family planning activities. He is assisted by another medical officer in the family planning and maternity and child welfare centres.

Hospitals and Dispensaries

There are two district hospitals in the district which were established in 1947, one for men and the other for women and they are under the State Government. There is a police hospital at the district headquarters and a railway hospital and a district jail hospital at Saidpur, the last, which has 40 beds for men is also maintained by the government. The District Hospital, Ghazipur, has 14 beds for men, 32 for women and 10 for children and the women's hospital, Ghazipur, 37 for females. It has X-ray plants, pathological test facilities, a blood bank and an orthopaedic section. The following statement gives an idea of the staff provided and the patients treated in the hospital in 1974-75 :

Name	Strength of staff		No. of patients treated		Expenditure in (in Rs)
	Doctors	Other staff	Out-door	Indoor	
District hospital, Ghazipur	12	74	58,456	4,654	7,32,000
Women's hospital, Ghazipur	2	24	19,758	4,305	1,52,000

Manav Sewa Sangh, Arogya Ashram, Ghazipur

This is a private, charitable hospital which treats eye diseases including operations for cataract, entropion, glaucoma and other eye diseases and ailments. In 1976, the number of patients treated in the out-door and indoor sections was 1,98,884 and 15,191 respectively. In the eye department, 648 cases were treated for various disease including 360 surgical ones in the indoor section.

Dispensaries

Allopathic—A statement giving details about the staff, the number of beds and the number of patients treated at the allopathic dispensaries in the district in 1976, is given below :

Allopathic Dispensaries	Location (tahsil)	Year of establish- ment	Strength of staff		No. of beds		No. of patients treated in 1975	
			Doctor	Others	Male	Female	Indoor	Out-door
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Nandganj	Saidpur	1948	2	3	2	2	291	4,028
Female des- pensary,								
Saidpur	Saidpur	1958	2	3	-	6	182	2,319

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Female dis- pensary,								
Zamania	Zamania	1962	2	3	-	6	224	1,900
Hathiaran	Saidpur	1965	2	3	2	2	Nil	1,120
Sadat	Saidpur	-	2	3	2	2	286	6,464
Barhat	Saidpur	1972	2	3	2	2	20	2,388
Deochandpur	Saidpur	1972	2	3	2	2	Nil	768
Nagsar	Zamania	1972	2	3	2	2	Nil	1,082
Bawanchak	Saidpur	1973	2	3	2	2	Nil	1,082
Derhagawan	Zamania	1973	2	3	2	2	Nil	2,361
Medanipur	Zamania	1973	2	3	2	2	Nil	786
Dildarnagar	Zamania	1973	2	3	2	2	Nil	365
Tajpur	Muham-							
Dehung	madabad	1973	2	3	2	2	Nil	762
Abishan	Ghazipur							
	(Sadar)	1973	2	3	2	2	2	1,645

Dispensaries under the Zila Parishad in 1975 :

Location	Staff		Year of establish- ment	Patients treated in 1975	
	No. of doctors	Others		Indoor	Out-door
Muhammadabad	1	4	-	107	10,048
Gahmar	1	4	-	11	5,596
Zamania	2	4	-	42	6,430

Homoeopathic Dispensaries

There are two homoeopathic dispensaries located at Sarai Gokul and Rampur (in tahsil Saidpur) respectively and each is manned by a doctor and other staff. The former was opened in 1965 and the latter in 1975. The dispensary at Sarai Gokul treated 680 patients in 1974.

Ayurvedic and Unani Dispensaries

There were 14 State Ayurvedic dispensaries in the district in 1976, one each at Serpur, Nauli, Sohwal, Dildarnagar, Amwara, Kundesar, Malra, Karimuddinpur, Manpur, Mardah, Bahadurganj, Bankikhod, Mahrareh and Athyaura. Each of them was manned by a doctor and three others and the number of beds was four. There were four Unani dispensaries located at Bhunapar, Jalalabad, Dahra and Bahriabad and each is manned by a doctor and other staff.

Primary Health Centres

In order to extend medical facilities and improve the health standards of the rural population, the government has established primary health centres in every development block of the district. There were 17 such centres in 1976. Each centre is manned by a medical officer who is assisted by a para-medical officer and health staff consisting of pharmacists, health inspectors, health visitors, smallpox inspectors and supervisors and family planning workers. At the district level the deputy chief medical officer (health) controls their functioning. The following statement gives some details of these centres :

Location of primary health centres	Block where opened	Year of establishment	Number of beds	No. of patients treated	
				Indoor	Out-door
Qasimabad	Qasimabad	1950	4	150	5,363
Subhakspur	Sadar	1957	4	Nil	6,361
Barnchawar	Barnchawar	1958	4	Nil	4,056
Jukhamia	Jukhamia	1964	4	10	5,631
Deokali	Deokali	1965	4	14	4,293
Birno	Birno	1965	4	Nil	3,365
Karanda	Karanda	1965	4	98	6,602
Reotipur	Reotipur	1965	4	226	6,818
Mardah	Mardah	1965	4	266	7,629
Bhadaura	Bhadaura	1967	4	110	13,679
Manihar	Manihar	1967	4	201	6,959
Gondaw	Bhowarkol	1970	4	Nil	3,176
Mirzapur	Sadat	1972	4	Nil	3,649
Muhammdabad	Muhammdabad	1973	8	228	5,481
Saidpur	Saidpur	1973	■	581	8,907
Zamania	Zamania	1973	6	117	4,926
Khanpur	Saidpur	1975	4	Nil	2,456

Maternity, and Child Welfare

The deputy chief medical officer (family planning) exercises supervision overall the maternity and child welfare, family planning and nutrition programmes. He is assisted by a team of medical officers, extension educators, midwives, *dais* and a district health visitor. Maternity and child welfare activities in the district, as elsewhere in the State, have come a long way since the days of the untrained *dai* and the village pediatrician. Lack of facilities for ante-natal and post-natal care contributed largely to the higher incidence of mortality among women and children till the late forties of this century.

From 1958, the government has embarked upon a policy to establish several maternity and child welfare centres in the district. They numbered 16 in 1975 and were attended by midwives and trained *dais*, three subcentres also being attached to each centre which is looked after by *dais*. A new scheme of prophylaxis of children and pregnant women against nutritional anaemia and other common disease has been taken up since 1973. These centres have been equipped with aids and devices to educate women in planned parenthood. Family planning literature and contraceptives are also made available free of cost to married people. The statement at the end of the chapter gives the location of the maternity and child welfare centres and subcentres.

There is no training centre for training auxiliary nurses and midwives in this district. *Dais* are trained in each subcentre of the primary health centre with trained auxiliary nurses and midwives. The period of training is six months or nine months, each trainee getting a stipend of Rs 15 per month. The trainees are required to be just literate. Certain details about the number of trainees from 1973 to 1976 are given below :

Year 1973-74		Year 1974-75		Year 1975-76	
Total	No. Successful	Total	No. Successful	Total	No. Successful
77	77	41	41	9	Under Training

Family Planning

The family planning programme was first introduced in the district in 1963-64 and got an incentive with the establishment of a family planning centre under each primary health centre. Each centre is staffed by a medical officer (family planning), an extension educator and family planning health assistants and subcentres are also attached to each centre. At the district headquarters there is an urban family planning centre served by a medical officer, an extension educator, a man social worker and two women social workers.

The work of all these centres and subcentres is supervised, controlled and co-ordinated by the district family planning bureau, Ghazipur, which is under the direct charge of the deputy chief medical officer (family planning). This officer is assisted by a health education information officer, two district extension educators, an equal number of statistical assistant computers, a district health visitor and a medical officer for the mobile intrauterine contraceptive device unit.

The statement given at the end of the chapter gives the location of the family planning centres and also of the subcentres attached to each.

Medical officers of primary health centres also perform vasectomy operations and the distribution of contraceptives is also done by the family planning centres which also impart information on the subject.

The mobile unit mentioned above is under the control of a medical officer and renders suitable help and guidance to interested persons. It also offers the facilities of vasectomy and tubectomy.

Efforts are being made continuously to popularise family planning through films, placards, posters other mass media and by personal contacts. The achievement in family planning work in recent years is indicated below :

Year	No. of sterilisations done	I. U. C. P. (loop) insertions
1969-70	1,510	1,435
1970-71	1,404	3,221
1971-72	4,386	2,829
1972-73	6,527	2,009
1973-74	383	3,170
1974-75	1,089	1,187
1975-76	2,211	5,004

Public Health

The deputy chief medical officer concerned exercises complete control and supervision overall health programmes, primary health centres, rural dispensaries and hospitals having less than 30 beds. He is also responsible for the collection of intelligence about epidemics, checking of food and drug adulteration and for providing necessary assistance during floods or the outbreak of an epidemic.

For public health and sanitation work in the Ghazipur municipal area, the municipal health officer, Ghazipur, holds prime responsibility. He is assisted by a team of municipal sanitary inspectors and vaccinators.

For the rural area the deputy chief medical officer is primarily responsible for this work. Under the U. P. Kshettra Samiti and Zila Parishad Act, 1961, the responsibility for village sanitation lies with the *gaon sabhas* which utilise the services of the sanitary inspectors for technical help and guidance. The *pradhans* are expected to report outbreaks of epidemic diseases to the primary health centres for antimeasures.

Vaccination

In early days the ravages of smallpox were extensive but only those who desired it were vaccinated at the government dispensaries. In 1805 some active measures were undertaken in this direction and a regular vaccination staff was organised. At first the measure failed in gaining popularity but later the efforts in this direction succeeded. The Vaccination Act, 1880, which made primary vaccination compulsory for children in municipal areas, notified areas and in a number of town areas, was enforced in the district about 1900. The deputy chief medical officer (health) is in charge of the work of vaccination in the district.

Vaccination is not compulsory in the rural areas of the district but during epidemics of smallpox, compulsory vaccination is enforced temporarily in these areas.

In urban areas vaccination is normally done by the vaccinators of the municipal boards concerned, the work being supervised by the assistant superintendent of vaccination. In rural areas it is carried out by the public health staff posted at the primary health centres. During epidemics the services of anti-epidemic officers, medical officers and *chikitsa adhikaris* are pressed into operation for the treatment of patients and for carrying out certain preventive measures.

The work has been intensified since 1963 under the auspices of the world health organisation and the government of India's programme for the eradication of smallpox. The following statement gives an idea about the vaccination measures taken from April, 1973 to November, 1975 :

Period	Total No. of persons vaccinated	No. of primary vaccinations		No. of revaccinations	
		Successful	Unsuccessful	Successful	Unsuccessful
April, 1973 to March, 1974	3,48,030	71,964	35,000	90,016	1,51,050
April, 1974 to November, 1975	6,75,428	81,101	36,886	1,27,808	4,29,633
Grand Total	10,23,458	1,53,065	71,886	2,17,824	5,80,683

Malaria Control and Eradication Programmes

The national malaria eradication programme was launched in this State during 1958-59. Under it the hyper-endemic areas of the State were covered by 40 units, each serving about 1 million of the population. For the remaining areas, which were categorised as hypo-endemic areas, 27 units, each covering about 1 million of the population, were established during 1959-60. Each of the hyper-endemic and the hypo-endemic units was divided into four subunits, each subunit covering about 2.50 lacs of the population.

The district of Ghazipur was categorised as a hypo-endemic area and was covered by the National Malaria Eradication Programme unit, Ghazipur and partly by the National Malaria Eradication Programme unit (west) Ballia, six subunit areas being set-up in the district, four covered by the former and two by the latter. Each unit has to pass through four phases—preparatory, attack, consolidation and maintenance. The preparatory phase did not have to be launched as the programme was already in operation in the district. In the next phase only spraying operations are carried out in all roofed structures twice a year (from May to September). In 1960-61 surveillance procedures were launched in the district and were carried out concurrently with spraying operations. House visitors visited all houses twice a month in search of cases of fever, blood slides of cases detected were collected and presumptive treatment administered. The attack phase remained in operation in the district from 1959 to 1963, when some parts of the district entered the consolidation phase under which the entire district was covered in 1963. In the maintenance phase the programme became part of the district health scheme and is now under the overall charge of the chief medical officer, who is in charge of all the public health activities in the district.

The deputy chief medical officer assisted by his staff, has been looking after the programme of malaria eradication since the start of the surveillance work. The incidence of malaria is indicated in the following statement :

Year	No. of blood samples examined	No. of malaria cases detected
1970	53,771	■
1971	41,927	Nil
1972	44,669	41
1973	48,501	5
1974	55,183	697

Prevention of Food and Drug Adulteration

The government public analyst analyses the samples taken by the sanitary inspectors from eating places, shops, milk vendors, etc. Suitable action is taken against offenders under the Prevention of Food Adulteration Act, 1954. The deputy chief medical officer (health) is the licensing authority for food establishments and drug stores in the district. He is assisted by a drug inspector whose duty it is to check the adulteration of drugs and to ensure that the observance of the Indian Drugs Act, 1940, and the Drugs Rules of 1945 is undertaken by retailers, whole-sale dealers and manufacturing concerns. The statement below gives an idea about food and drug adulteration in the district from 1973 to 1975 :

Year	Detecting authority	Samples collected		Samples found adulterated		Cases prosecuted		Cases lost (by offenders)
		Food	Drugs	Food	Drugs	Food	Drugs	
1973	(drug/food inspector)	417	17	102	2	74	...	35
1974		227	■	77	...	37	...	13
1975		138	...	73	...	82

STATEMENT I
Maternity and Child Welfare and Family Planning Centres

Location of main Maternity and Child Welfare Centre	Subcentres Attached to	
	Maternity and child welfare centre	Family planning centre
1	2	3
Saidur	Maudha Uchauri Gorakha	Mauriar Bhadailo Rampur Fardaha Amauni
Deokali	Saray Sarif Kurban Saray Sirgitha	Basoopur Nand Ganj Nari Pach Deo Deochandpur Dhuwarjun
Mirzapur	Bahariabad Paliwar Hurbheypur	Bhimapur Mangari Nadepur/Raipur Mahpur Sadat
Manihari	Maudhia Inderpur Chhiri Sikhari	Hunsh Rajpur Kalikpura Sadiabad Buerga Kathgara
Jakhania	Bharkura Dhamorpur Kishunpur	Rehati Mali Jafferpur Khetabpur Chhotans Jalalabad
Karanda	Chochakpur Barsara Dharmarpur	Gozandeypur Mainpur Saurabh Banga Zaheri
Birno	Bhojapur Bhagal Haripur	Bogana Maupur Bharsar Arasadpur Badhoopur

(Contd.)

1	2	3
Subhakerpur	Ranipur Mahuwari Kataila	Maharaj Ganj Foxganj Patchpur Atarra Andhaw Rajedepur Ranipur
Mardah	Nasaratpur Raipur Pallia	Barenda Indeuro Sulompur Gai
Qasimabad	Bahadurganj Mehraur Haripur Bassar	Gangauli Alawalpur Sidant Maheshpur Pallia
Mohammadabad	Monhara Abodan Ganspur	Sahabaj Koulo Parsa Ichouli Bishunpur Kundesar
Barachawar	Kataria Asawar Uttrah	Kasimuddinpur Newado Tajpur Hata Sherpur Datari
Gandaur	Birpur Mahenpur Mahenpur	Mirzabad Sukhdeha Kharabari Khardiha Kanwan
Reotipur	Nogasar Masapur Medanipur	Mauli Suhwal Sherpur Dhergawn Pathania
Bhadaura	Bara Tajpur Kura Karhia	Gahmar Dewal Dildarnagar Ammaura
Zamania	Dyorhi Deoith Deoria	Anoura Phooli Pachokhar Tajpur Dharbari Bhagirathpur

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

LABOUR WELFARE

After the attainment of Independence the government, for the welfare of the Country, worked out many schemes in order to provide better facilities for the working classes and for the creation of opportunities for progress and development. Labour welfare programmes have been taken in hand which aim at improving the lot of the labour community, at guaranteeing minimum and regulated wages, social security (like the State insurance of employees), security for old age, collective bargaining through the medium of recognised trade unions, medical and maternity facilities, regulated working hours, payment of bonus, payment of compensation and other types of ameliorative measures in the social and economic spheres.

The district falls in the Allahabad region of the State labour department. The labour inspector ensures, at the district level, the administration and compliance of labour laws, including prosecutions for their infringement and the enforcement of labour welfare schemes. The factories inspector also inspects factories under the Factories Act, 1948, Payment of Wages Act, 1936, etc., and takes necessary action against the employers failing to comply with the law. There were 11 boilers in the district in 1974 which were supervised by the inspector of boilers.

The State and Central Governments have passed a number of legislations for the benefit of labourers and their families and to protect their interests. The government took an active interest in the promotion of the welfare of the labour class after the coming of Independence in 1947. Although most of the labour legislations have been enacted after 1947, the seven Acts passed before that year—the Indian Boilers Act, 1923, Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, Payment of Wages Act, 1936, Employment of Children Act, 1938, U. P. Maternity Benefits Act, 1947, and Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946, are still operating after having been amended from time to time to suit the changing conditions. The Acts enacted after 1947 which are enforced in the district are the U. P. Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, Factories Act, 1948, Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961, U. P. Industrial Establishment (National Holidays) Act, 1961, U. P. Dookan Aur Vanijya Adhithan Adhiniyam, 1962, and Payment of Bonus Act, 1965.

In 1974, as many as 1,097 contraventions of these Acts were detected and 44 prosecutions were launched. The various Acts under which these were carried out are as follows :

Act	No. of contraven- tions	No. of prosecutions
U. P. Dookan Aur Vanijya Adhistan Adhiniyam, 1962	650	25
Minimum Wages Act, 1948	430	16
Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946	2	—
Payment of Bonus Act, 1961	4	—
Factories Act, 1948	2	—
Biri and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966	9	3

The amount of compensation which was paid in the five years from 1970 to 1974 under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, to the workers or their dependents on being involved in accidents resulting in death is given below :

Year	Fatal Cases	
	Number	Amount of compensation (paid in Rs)
1970	9	61,485
1971	9	62,300
1972	9	66,600
1973	4	31,000
1974	4	30,997

OLD-AGE PENSION

The old-age pension scheme was introduced in the district in 1957 to provide help to destitute people having no means of subsistence and having no relatives bound by custom or usage to support them. Under this scheme, financial assistance was given to those persons who were altogether helpless, had an income of not more than Rs 15 per month and were above 60 years of age in the case of women and above 65 years in the case of men. The amount of monthly pension was Rs 20. The scheme was liberalised in January, 1972, and the rate of pension was raised to Rs 30 per month. The benefits of this scheme are not available to beggars, mendicants and inmates of poor-houses.

The pension is sanctioned by the labour commissioner after verification of the applicant's particulars and on the recommendation of the district officer. The following statement gives the number of recipients in the district in December 1974 :

Tahsil	No. of beneficiaries		Total
	Men	Women	
Ghazipur	106	188	294
Muhammadabad	7	46	53
Zamania	19	13	32
Saidpur	20	16	36
Total	152	263	415

PROHIBITION

Though the district is not a dry area yet efforts by official and non-official agencies continue in order to inculcate in the people the habit of abstinence. Government efforts include restriction on the hours of sale of spirituous liquor and intoxicants, increase in the number of 'dry' days, fixation of the maximum quantity of liquor which can be sold to an individual at a time, increase in the price of liquor and in excise duty. The main persuasive method used is the education of the public against the use of intoxicants through mass contacts. There is a prohibition and uplift committee in the district, with the district magistrate as its president. Members include all legislators of the district, presidents and chairmen of all local bodies, president of the district bar association, several officers who have wide public dealings and also some members nominated by the district magistrate. The purpose of the committee is to determine ways and means of minimising the intake of liquor. This committee tries to educate people about the hazards of drinking by organising meetings, distribution of pamphlets and film shows and other mass media.

ADVANCEMENT OF SCHEDULED CASTES, SCHEDULED TRIBES AND OTHER BACKWARD CLASSES

The State Harijan *sahayak* department was set up in 1950 to formulate and implement schemes for the welfare of the members of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Other Backward Classes and Criminal Tribes (later to be known as Denotified Tribes). In 1957, a district Harijan welfare officer was posted to the district whose designation was changed to Harijan and social welfare officer in 1961, when the Harijan *sahayak* and social welfare departments were integrated. His main functions are to watch the interests of the members of these groups and to implement the schemes formulated by government for their welfare and the amelioration of their lot.

Members of the Scheduled Castes who were considered to belong to the depressed classes during British rule have been mostly the outcasts of local society. Social workers strove to better their lot but the alien government took little interest in their welfare. A half-hearted beginning was made in 1930 when a scheme was formulated for the award of stipends to students belonging to the Scheduled Castes but it was only with the advent of Independence that concrete steps were taken for their amelioration. The U. P. Removal of Social Disabilities Act was passed in 1947 which ensured to the members of such castes the unrestricted enjoyment of social and religious liberties. The Untouchability (Offences) Act, 1955, came into force in the State in June, 1955, and rendered the practice of untouchability an offence punishable under the Act. It repealed the corresponding State Act of 1947. The State Government also threw open all avenues of employment to members of the Scheduled Castes and major steps were taken for their adequate representation in the services.

In 1944, the upper age limit for recruitment of Scheduled Caste candidates to civil posts was relaxed by three years over the prescribed limit. In 1953, the reservation for members of these Castes in government services was raised from 10 to 18 per cent. In 1955, the upper age limit was raised by five years for gazetted posts as had already been done for non-gazetted posts in 1952. Government keeps a watch over the progress in recruitment of such candidates to various posts and have repeatedly emphasised that, other things being equal, the prescribed percentage for filling up posts by them must be achieved.

A district social welfare committee functions in the district whose chairman is the district magistrate. The vice-chairman and other non-official members are nominated by the government. It includes those members of the legislature who have a part or the whole of their constituencies in the district. The other official members of the committee are the district planning officer, the district inspector of schools and the district Harijan and social welfare officer, who also acts as the secretary of the committee. The committee is an advisory body and it advises the Zila Parishad and other local bodies on matters pertaining to the welfare of the Scheduled Castes.

The Harijan *sewak sangh*, a non-official organisation, also works for the social, moral, economic and educational uplift of these people.

For the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, the government spent a sum of Rs 68,345 during the First, Rs 2,18,660 during the Second, Rs 2,61,935 during the Third and Rs 3,19,300 during the Fourth Five-year Plan periods.

Details of the main heads on which the government incurred expenditure in this sphere during the various Plan periods are given below :

Head of expenditure	First Five-year Plan		Second Five-year Plan		Third Five-year Plan		Fourth Five-year Plan	
	Amount spent (in Rs)	Units benefited	Amount spent (in Rs)	Units benefited	Amount spent (in Rs)	Units benefited	Amount spent (in Rs)	Units benefited
House construction	22,100	62	56,350	110	59,336	104	1,11,300	150
Development of cottage industries	6,800	7	53,900	154	1,11,425	230	64,000	182
Construction of wells	39,445	60	81,000	75	41,550	154	56,000	56
Development of agriculture	—	—	27,410	226	49,614	302	88,000	169
Total	68,345	129	2,18,660	565	2,61,135	790	3,19,300	557

Since Independence much stress has been laid on the advancement of education among the Scheduled Castes, Other Backward Classes, Momin Ansars and Denotified Tribes. The government gives scholarships to the students of these classes. The statement below gives the details of scholarships given to the above-mentioned groups during the year 1974-75.

Level for which Scholarships given	Scheduled Castes		Other Backward Classes		Momin Ansars		Denotified Tribes	
	No. of students helped	Amount spent (in Rs)	No. of students helped	Amount spent (in Rs)	No. of students helped	Amount spent (in Rs)	No. of students helped	Amount spent (in Rs)
Prematriculation classes	2,042	2,04,920	791	83,308	—	—	62	8,956
Post-matriculation classes	1,532	1,16,000	88	40,000	37	21,300	—	—

CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS

Trusts

There are four trusts in the district which are administered by different agencies. The largest of these is the Nitya Gopal Rai Charitable Endowment Trust. The following statement gives relevant information about the important trusts and charitable endowments of the district :

Name	Date of foundation	Investment (in Rs)	Annual income (in Rs)	Objectives
Shivnath Singh Jubilee Scholarship Endowment Trust	April 10, 1907	900	26	To give scholarship to students
Surendra Medal Endowment Trust	Aug. 30, 1927	1,000	29	To give medals to students
Meston Scholarship Endowment Trust	Jan. 13, 1930	2,100	61	To give scholarship to students
Nitya Gopal Rai Charitable Endowment Trust	May 29, 1941	16,900	496	To give scholarship to students and to help patients with eye trouble

Muslim Trusts

There are 140 Sunni *waqfs* (trusts) in the district which are registered with the U. P. Sunni Central Board of Waqfs. Of these 43 are partly charitable. The following statement gives the details of important *waqfs* in the district :

Name of <i>waqf</i>	Date of foundation	Founder	Annual income (in Rs)	Objectives
Mir Barkat Ali	Sept. 4, 1904	Mir Barkat Ali	1,273	Giving of charity
Mohd Sharif	Oct. 28, 1915	Mohd Sharif	531	"
Haji Shubrati and Mst. Karima Bibi	Feb. 16, 1918	Haji Shubrati and Mst. Karima Bibi	1,204	"
Mst. Hamidan Bibi	April 20, 1929	Mst. Hamidan Bibi	2,316	"
Haji Rahmatullah	May 3, 1930	Abdul Mohi etc.	547	"
Haji Noor Ali	Aug. 11, 1887	Haji Noor Ali	599	"
Jame Masjid Sadwara Ghazipur	—	—	1,215	"

There are 40 Shia *waqfs* in the district which are registered with the Shia Central Board of Waqfs, particulars of some of the important ones being given below :

Name of <i>waqf</i>	Date of foundation	Founder	Annual income (in Rs)	Objectives
Imam Bandi Bibi	Oct. 29, 1890	Imam Bandi Bibi	1,600	Holding of <i>majlises</i> and <i>azadari</i> during Moharram and Chehallum
Sahibzadi Begam	May 8, 1851	Sahibzadi Begam	2,000	Maintenance of mosque and <i>imambara</i> and <i>azadari</i> during Moharram
Haideri Bibi	Jan. 3, 1943	Haideri Bibi	600	"
Waris Ali	Aug. 23, 1928	Waris Ali	700	<i>Azadari</i> during Moharram
Razia Bibi	Sept. 6, 1944	Razia Bibi	375	"
Mohammad Mohsin	Oct. 20, 1932	Mohammad Mohsin	800	"
Ali Hasan	July 16, 1913	Ali Hasan	190	"
Murtazai Bibi	June 26, 1937	Murtazai Bibi	120	"
Saiyed Wilayat Ali	Jan. 15, 1879	Saiyed Wilayat Ali	200	"
Syed Ali Nagi	Jan. 20, 1911	Syed Ali Nagi	100	"
Haji Wilayat Ali	July 8, 1942	Haji Wilayat Ali	300	"

Welfare of Ex-servicemen

For the welfare of ex-servicemen there is a district soldiers', sailors' and airmen's board established in 1919 in the district. It works under the control and supervision of the director, soldiers' welfare U. P. The work of the board in the district is supervised by a secretary who is a paid employee and an ex-serviceman. The board provides various facilities for ex-servicemen and their families and assists in their rehabilitation. These facilities include pensions, scholarships, relief grants, employment, medical treatment, settlement of accounts, permits for controlled commodities, settlement of disputed cases, etc.

The assistance rendered to ex-servicemen during the five years from 1970 to 1974 was to the following extent :

Year	No. of Ex-servicemen/amount received (in Rs)	Scholarships/No. and amount (in Rs)
1970	171/(12,255)	313/(17,633)
1971	165/(13,414)	327/(23,883)
1972	80/(7,331)	312/(21,494)
1973	128/(9,467)	352/(20,967)
1974	105/(8,535)	314/(18,591)

National awards for outstanding gallantry were given to the following two persons of the district :

Name of person/rank	Village and tahsil	National award obtained	Year of award
Abdul Hamid Company quartermaster Havildar	Hamiddhampur Dhampur, Tahsil Saidpur	Param Vir Chakra	1965
Ram Ugrah Pandey Lance Naik	Village Aimabansi Tahsil Saidpur	Mahavir Chakra	1971

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

PUBLIC LIFE

Emergence of Public Life

With the dawn of English education and with the familiarisation with western democratic institutions, public opinion came to be voiced in more direct and effective manner than in the mediaeval period. In the later half of the 19th century, men like Dadabhai Naoroji, S. N. Banerji, G. K. Gokhale, B. G. Tilak and M. M. Malaviya made a deep impression upon all Indians and Ghazipur could not have remained untouched by their impact. After the establishment of a branch of the home rule league in the district in 1917, various public meetings were organised which wholeheartedly favoured the home rule movement. The Rowlatt Bill of 1919 was also criticised by the people of the district. The people supported the Khilafat and the non-co-operation movements which were launched in the early twenties of the present century. The civil disobedience movement of 1930-34, the individual satyagraha movement of 1940-41 and the 'Quit India' movement of 1942 also received widespread support from the people of the district.

The democratic form of government adopted after Independence and the freedom of expression guaranteed under the Constitution of India greatly strengthened the growth and progress of public life and the awakening of the political consciousness of the people became a reality in every part of the Country. This district was no exception and was also stirred by the forces stimulating the rest of the Country.

Political Parties

Though all the national and regional political organisations have units of their parties which function in the district, the Indian National Congress, the Bhartiya Jan Sangh, the Socialist Party of India, the Communist Party of India and the Bhartiya Kranti Dal (later incorporated in the Bhartiya Lok Dal) are the parties having some significant following in the district. In the past they set up candidates for successive elections to the Vidhan Sabha and the Lok Sabha.

Representation of District in Legislatures

Under the Government of India Act, 1935 (enforced on April 1, 1937) the general elections to the State Legislative Assembly were held

in 1937, two seats being meant for the district, the Indian National Congress and Independents being the contestants. Both seats were won by the Indian National Congress and this party formed the government in 1937 but resigned in 1939, on the issue of not participating in the War of 1939-45 until the British government agreed to give India her freedom. The next general elections to the Legislative Assembly were held in 1945, in which both the seats (non-Muslim) allotted to the district were again won by the Indian National Congress.

After this the political and communal situation in the Country deteriorated but subsequently the British government announced its momentous decision of giving India her freedom.

On the basis of the Constitution of India, framed by the constituent assembly and enforced on January 26, 1950, the first general elections, both for the Lok Sabha and the Vidhan Sabha, were held in 1952.

State Legislature

Vidhan Sabha (Legislative Assembly)—In the general elections of 1952, this district was divided into seven constituencies : Ghazipur (central)-cum-Muhammadabad (north-west), Muhammadabad (north-east), Muhammadabad (south), Ghazipur (west), Ghazipur (south-east), Ghazipur (south-west) and Saidpur, the last named being a double-member constituency having one reserved seat for a Scheduled Caste candidate. There were 5,82,000 voters in the district and about 64 per cent of them exercised their right of franchise. The number of invalid votes was 10,633. In all, 53 candidates contested the eight seats, four being won by the Indian National Congress. The results were as follows :

Party/Independents	No. of candidates	Seats won	Votes polled	Percentage of votes polled
Indian National Congress	8	4	93,871	31.29
Socialist Party of India	8	3	76,209	25.41
Revolutionary Socialist Party	4	—	14,790	4.94
U. P. Revolutionary Socialist Party	5	—	19,882	6.63
Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party	6	—	20,768	6.93
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	1	—	2,242	0.75
Ram Rajya Parishad	2	—	2,245	0.75
Communist Party of India	1	—	1,499	0.49
Independents	18	1	68,482	22.81
Total	53	8	2,99,988	100.00

In the general elections of 1957, the names of the constituencies were altered but the number of seats remained the same as in the 1952 elections. The newly-formed constituencies were Saidpur, Ghazipur, Karanda, Zamania, Shadiabad and Muhammadabad. The two constituencies mentioned last were double-member constituencies, each having one seat reserved for the Scheduled Castes. The number of electors increased to 6,14,737 and about 74.2 per cent of them participated in the voting. The number of invalid votes was 25,247. In all 40 candidates contested the 8 seats, the results being as follows :

Party/Independents	No. of candidates	Seats won	Votes polled	Percentage of votes polled
Indian National Congress	8	4	1,33,432	30.52
Praja Socialist Party	7	1	89,894	20.56
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	4	-	17,013	3.89
Communist Party of India	3	3	70,039	16.03
Ram Rajya Parishad	1	-	3,524	0.81
Independents	17	-	1,23,256	28.19
Total	40	8	4,37,158	

The names of the Vidhan Sabha constituencies were again altered at the general elections of 1962 but the number of seats remained unchanged. The newly-formed constituencies were the single-member ones of Muhammadabad, Zamania, Ghazipur, Karanada, Shadiabad, Saidpur, Zahurabad and Pachotar. The last two constituencies were the reserved ones for candidates of the Scheduled Castes. The number of electors was 6,40,018 and about 56.1 per cent of them cast their votes. The invalid votes numbered 20,935. Of the 8 seats which were contested by 55 candidates, 4 were won by the Indian National Congress and 3 by the Communist Party of India. The results are given below :

Party/Independents	No. of candidates	Seats won	Votes polled	Percentage of votes polled
Indian National Congress	8	4	1,06,194	31.36
Praja Socialist Party	8	1	35,281	10.42
Communist Party of India	7	3	79,435	23.46
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	8	-	22,569	6.66
Socialist Party of India	5	-	25,690	7.58
Ram Rajya Parishad	1	-	370	0.10
Independents	11	-	69,176	20.42
Total	55	8	3,38,715	

In the 1967 general elections, the constituencies were again altered. The newly-formed constituencies were the single-member ones of Qasimabad, Muhammadabad, Dildarnagar, Zamania, Ghazipur, Sadat, Saidpur and Jakhania (reserved for the Scheduled Castes). The number of electors was 8,24,157 and about 52.8 per cent of them cast their votes. The invalid votes numbered 28,602. In all 59 candidates contested the 8 seats. The results were as follows :

Party/Independents	No. of candidates	Seats won	Votes polled	Percentage of votes polled
Indian National Congress	8	5	1,15,066	28.25
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	8	-	45,620	11.21
Communist Party of India	8	3	1,05,185	25.84
Communist (Marxist)	4	-	12,519	3.07
Samyukta Socialist Party	5	-	26,122	6.42
Republican Party	2	-	5,831	1.43
Praja Socialist Party	2	-	13,207	3.25
Swatantra Party	8	-	40,730	10.00
Independents	14	-	42,941	10.55
Total	59	8	4,07,221	

The Vidhan Sabha, constituted after the general elections of 1967, was dissolved in February, 1968, and President's rule was promulgated. A mid-term poll was held in 1969, for which the constituencies in the district remained unchanged. Of the 8,70,396 voters, about 57.5 per cent participated in the voting. The number of invalid votes was 15,812. In all 58 candidates contested the 8 seats, 7 being won by the Indian National Congress candidates. The results were as follows :

Party/Independents	No. of candidates	Seats won	Votes polled	Percentage of votes polled
1	2	3	4	5
Indian National Congress	11	7	1,62,870	33.59
Bhartiya Kranti Dal	7	1	77,387	15.97
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	8	-	66,271	13.67
Samyukta Socialist Party	3	-	44,283	9.14

1	2	3	4	5
Praja Socialist Party	3	-	2,211	0.46
Socialist Party of India	2	-	5,269	1.08
Republican Party	4	-	10,836	2.24
Communist Party of India	6	-	86,720	17.89
Swatantra Party	1	-	383	0.08
Mazdoor Parishad	3	-	2,846	0.59
Bhojpuri Samaj	4	-	2,973	0.60
Independents	9	-	22,719	4.69
Total	58	8	4,84,768	

For the general elections of 1974, the number of seats was reduced to 7 and the newly-formed constituencies were the single-member constituencies of Zahurabad, Muhammadabad, Dildarnagar, Zamania, Ghazipur, Sadat and Jakhania (reserved for the Scheduled Castes). Of 8,76,850 voters, 5,06,278 participated in the voting. The number of invalid votes was 14,200. Thus the percentage of voting comes to 59.35. In all 57 candidates entered the contest. All the 7 seats were won by the Bhartiya Kranti Dal. The results were as follows :

Party/Independents	No. of candidates	Seats won	Votes polled	Percentage of votes polled
Indian National Congress	7	-	1,44,522	29.27
Congress (Organisation)	7	-	21,248	4.32
Bhartiya Kranti Dal	7	7	1,99,515	40.55
Communist Party of India	6	-	39,918	8.12
Communist (Marxist)	1	-	1,353	0.27
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	7	-	43,412	8.83
Republican Party	2	-	3,588	0.73
Socialist Party of India	3	-	5,352	1.08
Shoshit Samaj Dal	■	-	18,912	3.84
Swatantra Party	1	-	358	0.07
Revolutionary Socialist Party	3	-	4,514	0.91
Independents	7	-	9,386	1.91
Total	57	7	4,92,078	

Vidhan Parishad (Legislative Council)—The district forms a part of the Varanasi Graduates, the Varanasi Teachers and the Azamgarh-cum-Ghazipur Local Authorities constituencies of the Vidhan Parishad. Two residents of the district represent the district in the legislative council.

UNION LEGISLATURE

Lok Sabha (House of the People)

In the general elections of 1952, this district formed a single-member constituency—that of Ghazipur, some portion of the district being included in the Ballia constituency. The Indian National Congress candidate was elected from the Ghazipur constituency and the Communist Party of India candidate from the Ballia constituency.

For the general elections of 1957, there was no change in the constituency. Of 3,82,561 voters, about 49 per cent exercised their right of franchise. The number of invalid votes was 190. One candidate each from the Indian National Congress, the Praja Socialist Party and the Bhartiya Jan Sangh and 2 Independents entered the contest, the seat being won by the Congress candidate.

In the general elections of 1962, the constituency remained unchanged. The number of electors was 3,99,020 and about 53 per cent of them cast their votes. The number of invalid votes was 10,064. In all 6 candidates, one each from the Indian National Congress, the Praja Socialist Party, the Socialist Party of India, the Bhartiya Jan Sangh and the Communist Party of India and one Independent, fought the election, the seat being won by the Indian National Congress candidate.

In the general elections of 1967, the district had 2 single-member constituencies, namely Ghazipur and Saidpur (reserved for the Scheduled Castes). In all 13 candidates, 2 each from the Indian National Congress, the Communist Party of India, the Swatantra Party and the Jan Sangh, and one each from the Praja Socialist Party and the Samyukta Socialist Party and 3 Independents, entered the contest. The Indian National Congress and the Communist Party of India candidates were elected. On account of a rift in the Indian National Congress, the Lok Sabha, constituted after the general elections of 1967, was dissolved on December 27, 1970, and fresh polls were ordered. Mid-term parliamentary elections were held in 1971, in which the constituencies remained unchanged. Of 11,08,789 electors, about 52 per cent participated in the voting. The number of invalid votes was 14,769. In all 10 candidates, 2 from the Bhartiya Kranti Dal, one each from the Samyukta Socialist Party, Bhartiya Jan Sangh, Indian National Congress, Congress (Organisation), Communist Party of India, Muslim Mailis, Socialist Party of India

and one Independent, contested the two seats. The Indian National Congress and the Communist Party of India won the seats.

Rajya Sabha (Council of States)

One resident of the district was represented in the Rajya Sabha in 1974.

NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS

Local Publications

The publication of newspapers and periodicals in the district started at the beginning of the present century. An Urdu monthly entitled the *Educational Magazine* was started in 1907 but due to a small circulation, it ceased publication. Among the three periodicals published in the district (all from Ghazipur town), the *Lok Sewak*, a Hindi weekly which started publication in 1949 and has a circulation of 15,000 per week, is the oldest one and publishes news and information about current affairs. Another Hindi weekly, the *Gadhi Kshetra*, containing news and articles on current affairs, started publication in 1971 and about 1,100 copies are in circulation. The remaining publication, the *Ghazipur Pardafash*, a fortnightly with news and articles on current affairs, started publication in 1964.

Other Newspapers and Periodicals

The English daily newspapers which are generally read in the district are the *Times of India*, the *Indian Express*, the *Hindustan Times*, the *Statesman*, the *Pioneer*, and the *National Herald*. The English weeklies and fortnightly which are popular here are *Blitz*, the *Illustrated Weekly of India*, the *Sports Week*, *Filmfare*, *Life*, the *Reader's Digest*, *Picturepost*, *Career and Courses* and some others.

The Hindi daily newspapers published outside the district and read by the people of the district are the *Hindustan Times*, the *Nav Bharat Times*, *Aaj*, *Navjivan*, *Swatantra Bharat*, etc. Among the weekly fortnightly and monthly periodicals and magazines usually read here are *Dharmayug*, *Saptahik Hindustan*, *Sarita*, *Mukta*, *Navneet*, *Niharika*, *Kadambini*, *Manohar Kahaniya*, *Nandan*, *Chandamama*, *Madhuri*, *Urvashi*, *Sushma* and some others.

The Urdu dailies, weeklies and monthlies popular here are *Qaumi Awaz*, *Siasat Jadid*, *Blitz*, *Shama*, *Biswin Sadi*, and *Huma*.

A number of free as well as priced publications of the Central and State Governments, the diplomatic missions, various cultural, religious, political and economic organisations and various agencies of the united nations, are also mailed to libraries and reading rooms in the district.

VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

The urge to organise voluntary associations for social service is found in the people of the district. With the advent of British rule and western methods of education in the Country, missionary institutions were established and other religious and social organisations (such as the Arya Samaj and the Rama Krishna Mission) set up social service organisations also. Hospitals and educational institutions were also set up. Since Independence, the government have taken an active interest in the promotion of voluntary cultural and social service organisations in the district.

Though voluntary welfare organisations are free to undertake any of their welfare schemes, the government see that these activities are in harmony with its schemes and policies.

Efforts have been made to co-ordinate the activities of the old voluntary social service organisations and the new governmental institutions and to enlist the people's participation as well. Some important social service organisations of the district are mentioned below :

The organisational set-up of the Pradeshik Vikas Dal in the district consists of about 70,000 members and includes a district organiser, a *vyayamshala* instructor, block organisers, block commanders, *halkasardars*, *dalpatis*, *tolt naiks* and numerous *rakshaks*. The main function of this organisation is to organise youth clubs, *bal* clubs and volunteers. The scope of its activities is mainly confined to the rural areas, where special attention is paid to the education of illiterates. The inculcation of the spirit of co-operation in the rural masses and to promote interest in *shramdan*, sports, games and cultural activities like dramas, singing of *lok geet*, performing of *lok nritya*, etc., is the main part of its work.

The crime prevention society of the district deals with the rehabilitation of prisoners and those who have been released from prison. Its main object is to work for the prevention of crime.

The prohibition society of the district, consisting of organiser, supervisor and *pracharaks*, lays emphasis on prohibition through mass contacts and propaganda by publicising the harmful effects of the drink evil.

Many of the all-India social service organisations have their branches in Ghazipur. Of these the local red cross society is presided over by the district magistrate and the chief medical officer is the honorary secretary. The Bharat scouts and guides mostly confine their activities to school students and arrange instructional classes, tours and camp-fires, etc. The Sarwa Seva Sangh endeavours to promote khadi spinning and weaving, care of animals, village sanitation, uplift of the depressed classes and the treatment of leprosy and other diseases by indigenous methods and naturopathy.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTERESTS

Aunrihar (pargana and tahsil Saidpur)

Aunrihar (or Aunrihar Kalan) is situated in Lat. 25°32'N. and Long. 83°11'E. on the main road leading from Varanasi to Ghazipur about 42 km. west from Ghazipur and about 3.2 km. from Saidpur.

This place is archaeologically interesting, one of the oldest and most important sites in the district is the belt having collection of mounds stretching from Saidpur to Aunrihar (and then on to the Jaunpur road).

The whole surface of the ground of Aunrihar is strewn with fragments, large carved stones and fine pieces of sculpture which are being utilised as common building stones. Every few yards traces of masonry walls appear. The place has risen to considerable importance as a railway junction, as it possesses a station on the metre-gauge line from Varanasi to Mau (in Azamgarh). A branch road leads westward from here to Khanpur and Chandwak.

The place is electrified and has a senior Basic school, a junior Basic school, post-office and a library. It falls in the Saidpur development block. The place has a population of 1,131 which is spread over an area of 112 ha.

Bahadurganj (pargana Zahurabad, tahsil Muhammadabad)

Bahadurganj town is situated in Lat. 25°52'N. and Long. 83°39'E. on the banks of the Saryu. It is at a distance of about 35 km. from Ghazipur and 32 km. from the tahsil headquarters and is administered as a town area.

The place is said to have been founded in 1742 by Sheikh Abdullah, the governor of Ghazipur who also built a large fort here.

It has been administered under Act XX of 1856 since 1873. Bahadurganj had a thriving trade in grain, sugar and saltpetre, which formed the chief exports and imported rice, piecegoods, salt and metals. Its situation on a navigable river led to this traffic in goods. But the river

ceased to be used for this purpose with the coming of road and rail communications. Markets are held here daily.

A small fair is held here on the occasion of Ram Navmi. On the western outskirts of the town there is a mosque and an *Idgah* of some architectural merit.

The town has a post-office, a junior Basic school, a senior Basic school, a dispensary, a maternity subcentre and a branch of the Union Bank of India. The place has a population of 5,314 which is spread over an area of 153 ha.

Bara (pargana and tahsil Zamania)

Bara is an ancient site which is situated in Lat. $25^{\circ}3'N.$ and Long. $83^{\circ}52'E.$ and its position indicates a connection with the old town of Birpur. It stands on the high bank of the Ganga on the road from Varanasi to Buxar, at a distance of 32 km. from Zamania and 25 km. from the district headquarters. There is a large mound in the village and ruins are to be seen about one km. to the west. The situation of the place on the main road has tended to give it a somewhat commercial aspect though the trade is mostly confined to the simple requirements of the agricultural community. The markets are held twice a week and are well attended. It possesses a post-office, three junior Basic schools and a higher secondary school and it is electrified. This place has a population of 9,725 which is spread over an area of 1,236 ha.

Bhitri (pargana and tahsil Saidpur)

Bhitri (or Bhitri Taraf Sadar) is situated in Lat. $25^{\circ}34'N.$ and Long. $83^{\circ}18'E.$ and is at distance of about eight km, north-east from Shadiabad and about 32 km. from Ghazipur.

The name 'Bhitri' is popularly derived from Bhimutri, but another account ascribes the name of the place to the consort of Muhammad bin Tughlaq. The village is divided into two portions known as Taraf Sadar and Taraf Hatim, the story being that it was given as a rent-free grant to two brothers, Hatim Khan and Alam Khan, the latter naming his share after his son, Sadr Khan.

At one time the place gave its name to a pargana and for a long time after its amalgamation with Saidpur, the tract was known as Saidpur Bhitri. The river Gangi flows close to the village on the west and is crossed by a masonry bridge supposed to be about 375 years old.

Bhitri is archaeologically very important. It is a place of great antiquity and contains many remains of great archaeological value. It stands on an almost rectangular mound raised at each corner and gives the idea of a fort with bastions or towers connected by a low embankment or wall. At the south-west corner there is a projecting spur with an *imumbara* at the top underneath which are the remains of an ancient structure built of bricks. Excavations made in several of the mounds in 1863 yielded broken pottery. Like many other sites in the district, Bhitri has been extensively exploited for building materials and several fine columns and carved stones have been utilised for the bridge over the Gangi. A mosque here contains about 30 stone pillars, some elaborately carved and pieces of sculpture and stones are to be seen scattered everywhere in the neighbourhood. It is probable that Bhitri was at one time in the hands of the Buddhists but it probably attained its chief importance during the Gupta era. The most noticeable relic of that epoch is the famous monolith of red sandstone standing in the fort enclosure on a block of rough stone. It has a bell-shaped capital about a metre high like those of some Asoka pillars. On it there is an inscription referring to the reign of Skanda Gupta and his succession to Kumar Gupta. The latter name occurs on several large brick that were excavated at the foot of the pillar and in 1885 an oval silver plate, bearing an inscription of Kumar Gupta, was found in the adjacent ruins. From time to time several hoards of Gupta coins have also been discovered in this area. Apart from the pillar, the most valuable yield has been a seal giving the genealogy of nine generations of Gupta kings. Bhitri was probably one of the royal residences and the influence of the Gupta kings on the area (and on the district) must have been considerable.

Bhitri possesses a post-office, a library, a dispensary, a junior Basic school and a senior Basic school. The place is electrified.

A village market is held here on Sundays. The place falls in the Deokali development block and has a population of 536 which is spread over an area of 36 ha.

Birpur (pargana and tahsil Muhammadabad)

Birpur is situated in Lat. 25° 32'N. and Long. 83°52'E. and is on the high bank of the Ganga river opposite village Bara, at a distance of about 35 km. from Ghazipur and 16 km. south-east from the tahsil headquarters.

Birpur its a place of undoubted antiquity and the story goes that it was the capital of Tikam Deo, a great Cheru raja. He was displaced by the Bhuinhars of the Kinwar clan who held a large estate but which they subsequently lost. Old coins and pieces of sculpture have been found

here in the fort from time to time. *Hats* are held twice a week on Mondays and Fridays.

The place possesses a post-office and a junior Basic school. The village is electrified. The place has a population of 5,020 which is spread over an area of 72 ha.

Dildarnagar (pargana and tahsil Zamania)

Dildarnagar, is situated in Lat. $25^{\circ} 26'N$. and Long. $83^{\circ} 40'E$. and is administered by a town area committee, lies on the road from Varanasi and Zamania to Buxar, 11 km. east from the tahsil headquarters and 19 km. south from Ghazipur. To the south of the road runs the main line of the railway, the station being about two km. distant from the place and connected with it by a feeder road. Close to the station there is a bazaar.

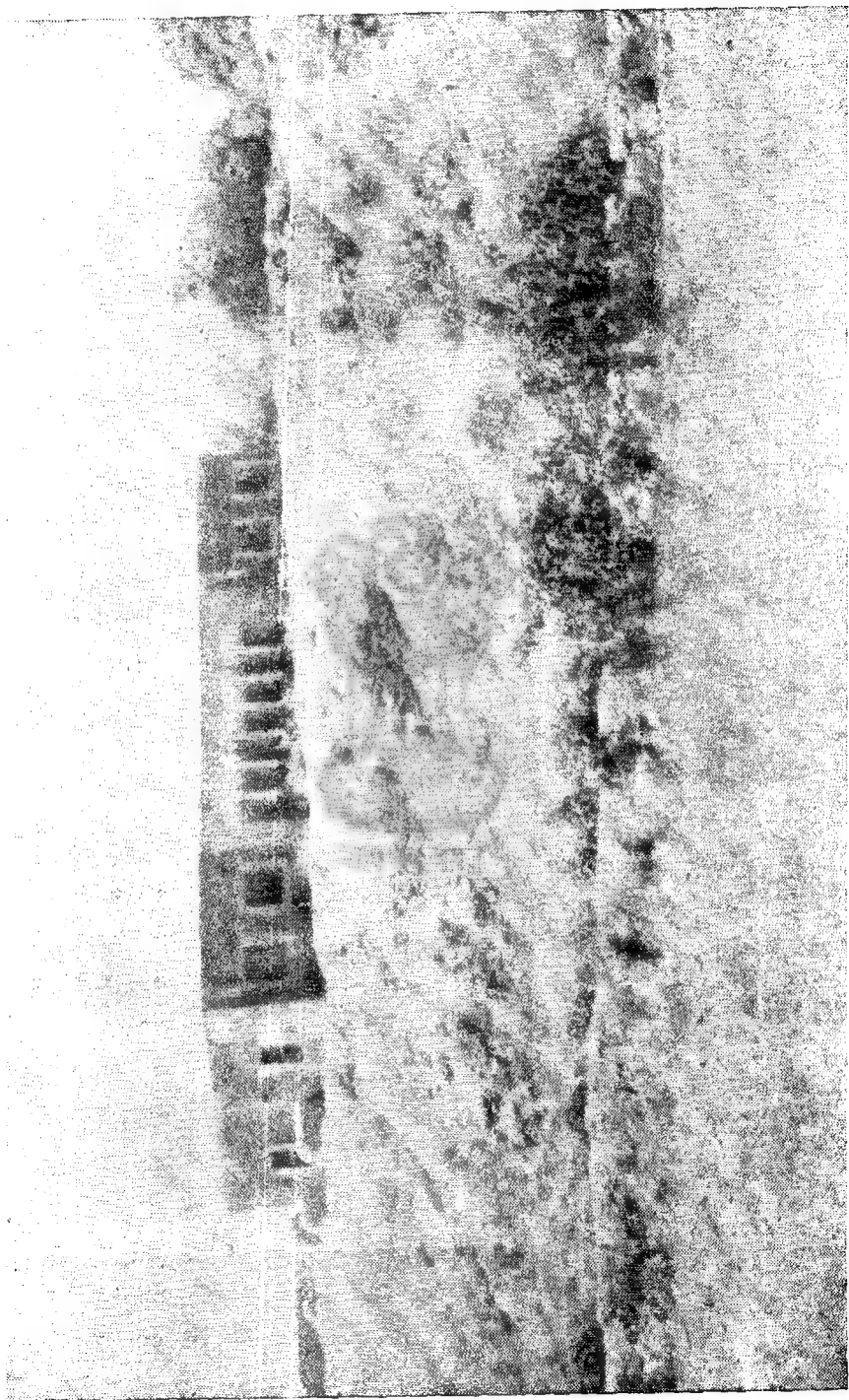
Between the town and the station there is a mound called Akhandha, said to have been the seat of Raja Nala (of the Pauranic period) and the large tank to the west is called the Rani Sagar after his famous queen. Damayanti. In the centre of the mound are the ruins of two temples. The place is supposed to have been destroyed in the reign of Aurangzeb by Dildar Khan, the founder of Dildarnagar.

Dildarnagar possesses a police-station, a post-office, three banks, two intermediate colleges and three junior Basic schools. It is of some commercial importance as it was originally a halting place on the road. The opening of the railway brought it prosperity as it attracted a number of export dealers in grain. With the construction of the Tari-ghat branch line of the railway in 1879, trade received a fresh impetus and a new bazaar sprang up near the railway station, which diverted much traffic from the old bazaar. The place is electrified. A Ram Lila fair takes place on the occasion of Dasahra. The place has a population of 5,661 which is spread over an area of 1,176 ha.

Gahmar (pargana and tahsil Zamania)

Gahmar, a large village, is situated in Lat. $25^{\circ} 30'N$. and Long. $83^{\circ} 49'E$. at a distance of 28 km. both from Ghazipur and Zamania and is connected with them by roads. To its south runs the rail road.

Gahmar is built on the old, high bank of the Ganga and was founded by Rajput settlers of the Sikarwar clan. It has a police-station, a post office, a bank, a higher secondary school, a senior Basic school, a junior Basic school and a dispensary. Fairs of considerable size take



Court of Nal-Damyanti, Dildarnagar.

place on the Dasahra and Makar Sankranti festivals. There is a small market in the village, the trade being confined to the simple requirements of an agricultural community. The place is electrified. The place has a population of 14,910 which is spread over an area of 771 ha.

Ghauspur (pargana and tahsil Muhammadabad)

Ghauspur, a large village, is situated in Lat. 25° 37'N. and Long. 83° 42'E., on the metalled road going from Ghazipur to Ballia, some 14 km. from the former and five km. to the west of the tahsil headquarters. The main site stands on the old high bank of the Ganga river, below which flows the Besu river as it passes through the low alluvium.

The former zamindars of the place were Bhuinhars who claimed descent from those who cured Raja Mandhata of his leprosy and who in consequence received a grant of land. The tank in which the raja bathed is still pointed out on the eastern border of the village and it has ever since been the resort of persons similarly afflicted. The raja's fort was at Kathot an adjacent village on the east. Both in Ghauspur and at Kathot are to be found traces of an old Hindu civilization; large masses of stone and old bricks have been discovered and in the temple are to be seen several striking pieces of Hindu sculpture. Oldham assigned to these a Buddhist origin and identified the place with the "monastery of unpierced ears" mentioned by the Chinese pilgrims Hiuen Tsang and Fa Hien.

The village possesses a post-office, a junior Basic school, a senior Basic school and a hospital. It is electrified.

Markets are held here twice a week—on Wednesdays and Thursdays. The place has a population of 3,343 which is spread over an area of 91 ha.

Ghazipur (pargana and tahsil Ghazipur)

Ghazipur, a town, is situated in Lat. 25°35'N. and Long. 83°35'E., a distance of 12 km. north-east from Varanasi and at a height of some 12 m. above sea-level.

The history of Ghazipur since the days of its traditional foundation by Saiyid Masaud in 1330, has been narrated earlier (in Chapter II). According to a legend, the ancient name of the city was Gadhipura, called after a Raja Gidhi, Gaj or Gath, and at times the people of the place even now pronounce the name of the town as 'Gajipur'. There can be no doubt that the spot which the town occupies is an old site. An examination of the exposed section of the high river bank on which the town stands, reveals that the soil contains many fragments of old brick

and pottery. Cunningham suggested that the old name might be Garjapapura, a possible Sanskrit equivalent for the Chinese Chen Chu which meant the "Kingdom of the Lord of Battles." The mound on which the old dispensary stood is said to be the site of an ancient mud fort.

The town is connected with other districts by the north-eastern railway (metre-gauge). A line from Chupra to Varanasi passes through Aunrihar junction. Near the city station three metalled roads meet, leading from Varanasi on the west from Korantadih and Ballia on the east and from Gorakhpur and Azamgarh on the north. From the junction of the last two, a highway traverses the centre of the town to the river bank, where a ferry leads to Tari-ghat station the opposite side. A road runs from the west of the town to Jalalabad and Azamgarh on the north-west and another to the Chochakpur ferry and Varanasi on the south-west.

North of the Chochakpur road the land is mostly cultivated but to the south are the Gora bazaar, the inspection bungalow, St. Thoma's Church and, at the western extremity, a cemetery. Another cemetery, a very old one (now in use since 1853) is to the north of the Varanasi road. To the south of the Church stands the Cornwallis monument, erected by the British government in memory of (Lord) Cornwallis, a governor-general of India. It is a heavy structure with a domed roof supported on twelve Doric columns. The floor is some four m. higher than the ground and is of grey marble. In the centre there is a cenotaph of white marble, bearing on the south side a medallion bust of Cornwallis.

The road from Varanasi forms the main bazaar and is about three km. in length within the town, running due east for nearly 1.5 km. There is a tank close to the road known as Pahar Khan's tank beyond which lies the market of Bishesharganj and then the road runs past the Qila Kohna or old fort. Opposite this is the mission high school and from there the road continues through the Lal Darwaza locality past the serai to the town hall, a double-storeyed building which was built in 1878. Behind the town hall there is Martinganj, the street then turning sharply to the left for about 600 m., bending eastwards again keeping parallel to the river. In this portion of its course it is crossed by a broad modern highway which runs through the town from the junction of the Gorakhpur and Ballia roads at Ghazi Mian to Pushtaghat, opposite Tari-ghat. Beyond the crossing the chief object of interest is the Chihal Satun or hall of 40 pillars, this being the place where Abdullah Khan is buried in the garden known as the Nawab-ki-Chahar-diwari. The gateway of the place is handsome but the residence itself is dilapidated. Opposite the Chihal Satun a road leaves the main street on the left and runs in a north-easterly direction, past the Jami Masjid, the

Nawab's garden, tank and tomb, to join the Korantadih and Ballia road, which forms the northern boundary of the municipality, near the garden of Karim-ullah and the tank of Dharam Chand. The main road continues eastwards through Razaganj and Begampur to the Math Khaki and on to the Ghazipur Ghat station on the town boundary. Along the river bank there are a number of masonry ghats, the chief of those below Amghat being Collector-ghat, Pakka-ghat, Mahsul-ghat, Gola-ghat, Chitnath-ghat and Nakta-ghat, close to which is the Chashma-i-Rahmat school, Khirki-ghat and Pushta-ghat.

The town contains the tahsil headquarters, a post-office, the judge's and puisne judge's courts and a police-station; also a *patwari* school, a higher secondary school, two intermediate colleges and two degree colleges. It has a district hospital, a Dufferin hospital, a jail hospital and a police hospital. There is a family planning organisation at the headquarters, a power-house, the old opium factory and a distillery. This town has a population of 45,635 which is spread over an area of 13.73 sq. km.

Khanpur (pargana Khanpur, tahsil Saidpur)

Khanpur, a village, is situated in Lat. 25°33'N. and Long. 83°7'E. on the south side of the road leading from Aunrihar to Chandwak, at a distance of about 48 km. from Ghazipur and 12 km. from Saidpur.

The place was formerly known as Khanpur Chamki and the story goes that Munim Khan 'Khan-i-Khan', governor of Jaunpur in the days of Akbar, once came here on a hunting expedition, bringing with him a dancing girl named Chamki, on whom he bestowed the land around his tent, calling it Khanpur Chamki.

It is included in the Saidpur development block and possesses a post-office, a dispensary and two junior Basic schools. The village has a population of 2,878 which spreads over an area of 380 ha.

Muhammadabad (pargana and tahsil Muhammadabad)

Muhammadabad, a town, is situated in Lat. 25°37'N. and Long. 83°45'E. at a distance of about 21 km. north-east from the district headquarters and is connected by a metalled road to Korantadih and Ballia. A branch from this road takes off some three km. to the west and goes direct to Ballia by way of Karimuddinpur. Another road goes to Yusufpur and on to Qasimabad.

There is no authentic record of the foundation of Muhammadabad but it is evidently a very old Muslim settlement dating from the days of

the Lodi sultans. During Akbar's reign it was the capital of a pargana and was then known as Muhammadabad Paricharbari to distinguish it from other places of the same name ; the word 'Pariharbari' is sometimes corrupted to Phalharbari or Pharharbari and to account for this there is a legend that the first occupant was a saint who lived only on fruits and vegetables.

The tahsil building is in Muhammadabad. The headquarters was moved to Korantadih in 1876 but afterwards it was brought back in 1894 on the transfer of pargana Garha to Ballia. There are a police-station, a munsif's court, an inspection bungalow, a maternity centre, a cattle pound, a primary health centre, a dispensary, a post-office and two banks in the town. The town has a population of 13,320 which is spread over an area of 635 sq. km.

Qasimabad (pargana Zahurabad, tahsil Muhammadabad)

Qasimabad (or Sonbarsa), a village, is situated in Lat. 25°47'N. and Long. 83°40'E. and is in the centre of the pargana. This village is at the junction of several roads converging from Mau and Bahadurganj on the north, Rasra on the north-east, Mardah and Jalalabad on the west and Muhammadabad on the south, the distance from Ghazipur being 24 km. and from the tahsil headquarters about 21 km.

The present name of the place is derived from Sheikh Muhammad Qasim, a petty zamindar of Dharwara, an adjoining village. His son, Sheikh Abdullah, became the governor of Ghazipur in the 18th century. He built a fort, which he named Qasimabad in honour of his father and surrounded the entire village with a fortified wall of which the ruins are still standing.

Qasimabad possesses a police-station, a post-office, a cattle pound, a maternity centre, a primary health centre, a higher secondary school and a branch of the District Co-operative Bank, Ltd. This village has a population of 244 and an area of 73 ha.

Reotipur (pargana and tahsil Zamania)

Reotipur, a large village, is situated in Lat. 25°32'N. and Long. 83°43'E. which stands on the road from Ghazipur to Gahmar and Buxar, 13 km. distant from the district headquarters and 19 km. from Zamania. From the east of village, which is built on a fairly raised site overlooking the Ganga, a branch road runs southwards to Nauli and the Bhadaura railway station.

The place is purely agricultural. Markets are held twice a week but the bazaar is merely of local importance. The village has a post-office, a bank, a higher secondary school, two senior Basic schools, three junior Basic schools, a dispensary and locates the office of the block development officer. A fair is held here on the occasion of Dasahra. The place is electrified. This village has a population of 14,732 which is spread over an area of 1,116 ha.

Sadat (pargana and tahsil Saidpur)

Sadat, a small town, is situated in Lat. $25^{\circ}40'N$. and Long. $83^{\circ}19'E$. and is at a distance of about 30 km. north-west from Ghazipur and about 18 km. from Saidpur. Through the middle of town runs the railway from Aunrihar to Mau but the railway station of Sadat is about 2.5 km. to the north-west, in the village of Daulatnagar. The railway has benefited the trade of the place which has a flourishing market, the traffic being in grain, sugar, salt, yarn and metal articles.

Sadat contains a police-station, a post-office, a family planning centre, a dispensary, a higher secondary school, two senior Basic schools, two junior Basic schools, two *maktabs*, a branch of the District Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Ghazipur, and a branch of the Union Bank of India. The Ramlila fair is held here on Asvina Sudi 10. The place is electrified. It is also the headquarters of a development block which was opened on April 1, 1961. The block has a population of 21,917 and it has 90 *gaon sabhas* and 13 *nyaya panchayats*. This town has a population of 4,152 which is spread over an area of 270 ha.

Saidpur (pargana and tahsil Saidpur)

Saidpur, headquarters town of the tahsil, is situated in Lat. $25^{\circ}32'N$. and Long. $83^{\circ}14'E$. It is a place of great antiquity and it has been suggested that it might have been the site of Chen-chu (the name used by the Chinese pilgrim, Hiuen Tsang in his account of his travels) for this part of the country—the meaning of this term being the “kingdom of the lord of battles” which has been variously rendered as Yudhapatipura, Yudharanapura and Garjapatipura. It is located on the left bank of the Ganga, at a distance of about 39 km. west of Ghazipur on a metalled road. The bank of the Ganga is here formed of *kankar* and so has been able to withstand erosion. From Saidpur a road runs northwards through the main bazaar to the railway station and there bifurcates, one branch going to Sadat and the other to Bhitri and Shadiabad. From the western extremity of the town a road leads to Bhimapar and Bahriabad and from there to Chiriakot (in district Azamgarh).

It has not been possible to identify the locality definitely with any known city of ancient times but both in the town and its vicinity numerous remains of the Buddhist and early Hindu periods have been discovered. In the town, to the west of the southern extremity of the bazaar, are two Muslim *dargahs*, one being a small domed building resting on square pillars. The other is a larger and more remarkable structure with a massive roof of stone. These two buildings might represent *Chaityas* attached to a Buddhist monastery. Both owe their preservation to their appropriation for Muslim purposes, one being the tomb of Sheikh Saman who died in 1595 (as stated in a Persian inscription) in commemoration of whom a large fair is held during the month of Chaitra and the other containing the tomb of one Makhdum Shah. Elsewhere in the town are to be seen bits of old sculpture and stones borrowed from earlier buildings, which were freely utilised for the construction of many Muslim tombs in the neighbourhood. The location of a Muslim settlement is ascribed to one Saiyid Shah Namad, after whom the place was called Saidpur Namdi. Saidpur has been administered as a town area since February 29, 1860. In addition to the tahsil buildings, it possesses a police-station, a post-office, a telegraph office, a telephone exchange, two dispensaries, an intermediate college, a high school, a junior Basic school, two nurseries, a *maktab*, a branch each of the Union Bank of India, the Banaras State Bank Ltd., the State Bank of India, the U. P. State Co-operative Land Development Bank and the District Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Ghazipur.

Saidpur is also the headquarters of a development block which started functioning from July 1, 1957. The block has a population of 24,815 and it includes 117 *gaon sabhas* and 15 *nyaya* panchayats. This town has a population of 10,045 which is spread over an area of 5.54 sq. km.

Zamania (pargana and tahsil Zamania)

Zamania, the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name, is situated in Lat. 25°25'N. and Long. 83°24'E. It is on the old, high bank of the Ganga about 16 km. south from Ghazipur. The town was founded in 1560 (in the days of Akbar) by Ali Quli Khan, the governor of Jaunpur, and named after his title, Khan Zaman. According to Hindu tradition, it derived the name of Jamadagnia from the *rishi*, Jamadagni, who married the daughter of Raja Madana, the local chieftain, whose wife was the daughter of the mythical Raja Gadhi of Gadhipura (modern Ghazipur). On one occasion Madana and his wife visited the *rishi*, filled with envy because Jamadagni possessed the miraculous cow, Kamadhenu, Madana carried it off. To expiate his sin, Madana made a great sacrifice which is said to have been commemorated

on a copper plate which was found during the last century. After the sacrifice he erected a temple dedicated to Madaneswar, three km. to the south-east of the town and there set up a pillar in the village of Lathiya or Shahpur. The *Ain-i-Akbari* gives its name as 'Madan Benares' signifying "the desired" or "the intended Benares". In its early days it was the seat of a Hindu principality.

The Lathiya pillar is a circular monolith of polished sandstone, 50 cm. in diameter and about 6 m. in height. There is a bell-shaped capital (resembling that of the Bhitri column of the Gupta period) and above this is a group of eight lions facing outwards. It is devoid of any inscription. Many of the houses in the town were built of bricks taken from this site and large numbers were used for ballast in the construction of the railway tract. The name of the town occurs frequently in the history of the district. The place was destroyed in 1757 by fazl Ali Khan, the expelled governor of Ghazipur and remained deserted for several years till its reconstruction by Chaudhri Muhammad Ajmal, the *amil* of the pargana.

The tahsil buildings, the police-station and the registration office stand to the south-east of the town, Zamania has developed into a centre of trade in wheat, rice, pulses and oil-seeds. It is served by a post-office, a dispensary, a health centre, a development block, a railway station, three banks, an intermediate college, three higher secondary schools, a senior Basic school, a junior Basic school and an inspection bungalow. The place is administered by the town area committee and the availability of electricity has given rise to some industrial and commercial establishments. The town is also the venue of well-attended fairs on the occasions of Dasahra and Makar Sankranti. This place has a population of 12,067 and covers an area of 936 ha.

CONVERSION FACTORS

Money

1 pie = 0.52 Paise

1 pice = 1.56 Paise

Linear Measure

1 inch = 2.54 centimetres

1 foot = 30.48 centimetres

1 yard = 91.44 centimetres

1 mile = 1.61 kilometres

Square Measure

1 square foot = 0.093 square metre

1 square yard = 0.836 square metre

1 square mile = 2.59 square kilometres = 259 hectares

1 acre = 0.405 hectare

Cubic Measure

1 cubic foot = 0.028 cubic metre

Measure of Capacity

1 gallon (Imperial) = 4.55 litres

1 seer *(80 tolas) = 0.937 litre

Measure of Weight

1 tola = 11.66 grams

1 chhatak = 58.32 grams

1 seer * = 933.10 grams

1 maund * = 37.32 kilograms

1 ounce (Avoirdupois) = 28.35 grams

1 pound (Avoirdupois) = 453.59 grams

1 hundredweight = 50.80 kilograms

1 ton = 1,016.05 kilograms = 1.016 metric tonnes

Thermometer Scales

1° Fahrenheit = $9/5$ ° centigrade + 32

* As defined in Indian Standards of Weight Act, 1939.

GLOSSARY

<i>Adalat</i>	...	Court of justice
<i>Amtl</i>	...	Official who collected revenue under the Nawabs of Avadh
<i>Arhar</i>	...	Pigeon pea, a dal
<i>Asamt</i>	...	A lessee of a disabled <i>bhumidhar</i> or of a <i>Sirdar</i> or a tenant of the <i>gaon sabha</i> , having no transferable rights
<i>Bajra</i>	...	Pearl millet
<i>Bhoodan</i>	...	Free donation of land
<i>Bhumidhar</i>	...	A peasant proprietor having permanent heritable and transferable rights on holdings
<i>Bichua</i>	...	Toe ring usually of silver
<i>Birha</i>	...	A folk-song
<i>Brahmachari</i>	...	One who takes the oath of celibacy
<i>Chana</i>	...	Gram
<i>Chaudhri</i>	...	Gardener
<i>Dai</i>	...	Midwife without diploma
<i>Dangal</i>	...	Wrestling match
<i>Dargah</i>	...	A shrine of Muslim saint
<i>Dholak</i>	...	A long cylindrical drum covered with parchment at both ends
<i>Doli</i>	...	A kind of small palanquin
<i>Faujdar</i>	...	Subordinate military officer under Mughals
<i>Gagona</i>	...	An Indian game
<i>Gaon</i>	...	Village
<i>Gaon-sabha</i>	...	Village assembly
<i>Ghani(s)</i>	...	Indigenous oil extracting machine
<i>Gheras</i>	...	Enclosures

<i>Gokharu</i>	...	Thin lace of gold or silver
<i>Gotra</i>	...	Clan
<i>Gullī-Danda</i>	...	An Indian game
<i>Gur</i>	...	Jaggery
<i>Gurukula</i>	...	Residential educational institution at Guru's own place
<i>Havan</i>	...	Fire sacrifice
<i>Idgah</i>	...	Place for offering community prayers of Muslims
<i>Imambara</i>	...	Building for performance of religious ceremonies, etc., by Shia Muslims in memory of Imam Hasan and Husain and their followers
<i>Jhil</i>	...	Lake
<i>Juar</i>	...	Jowar
<i>Kabaddī</i>	...	An Indian out-door game
<i>Kankar</i>	...	Irregular concretions of impure calcareous matter (often used for making lime)
<i>Kathputli</i>	...	Puppet
<i>Khadir</i>	...	Low lying area near the river
<i>Khamīras</i>	...	A syrup prepared by the admixture of oda
<i>Khandsari</i>	...	Indigenous white sugar
<i>Khilat</i>	...	Robe of honour
<i>Kho-Kho</i>	...	An Indian game
<i>Khudkasht</i>	...	Cultivation by the land owner either by himself or through hired labour
<i>Khutba</i>	...	Religious sermon
<i>Kolhus</i>	...	Expeller
<i>Kuppl</i>	...	Small lamp
<i>Kurta</i>	...	Loose collarless shirt worn by men
<i>Lat</i>	...	Pillar
<i>Mahal</i>	...	Unit of land under separate engagement for payment of revenue

<i>Majlises</i>	...	Religious assemblies of Shia to commemorate the death of Imam Husain and his followers
<i>Masur</i>	...	A kind of pulse
<i>Moong</i>	...	Green gram
<i>Maktab</i>	...	A school for Muslim children
<i>Nagara</i>	...	Drum
<i>Naib</i>	...	Assistant
<i>Naicha</i>	...	A pipe of a hubble-bubble
<i>Nautanki</i>	...	Open air theatre played on small dais like one act play
<i>Nazim</i>	...	Governor ; head of district with revenue, executive and judicial powers in pre-British days
<i>Nazul</i>	...	Land belonging to government situate within the municipal area, but not belonging to any particular department
<i>Nyaya</i>	...	Justice
<i>Palki</i>	...	Palanquin
<i>Pathshala</i>	...	School
<i>Patwari</i>	...	A petty revenue official
<i>Payal</i>	...	Anklet
<i>Phag</i>	...	A folk-song
<i>Pracharak</i>	...	Propagator
<i>Rakshak</i>	...	Guard
<i>Sajji</i>	...	Saltpetre
<i>Salma</i>	...	Gold or silver thread used in embroidery
<i>Sandhya</i>	...	Evening prayer
<i>Satak</i>	...	The elastic pipe fitted to a hubble-bubble
<i>Sewin</i>	...	Vermicelli
<i>Sir</i>	...	Land cultivated by owner
<i>Sirdar</i>	...	A holder of the land having only cultivation rights but no right to transfer the holding

<i>Sitara</i>	...	A small polished tablet made of gold or silver
<i>Tappa</i>	...	A rovenue subdivision
<i>Tazla</i>	...	An imitation of the tombs of Hasan and Husain, generally made of coloured paper and bamboo
<i>Thanadar</i>	...	In charge of police-station
<i>Upanayan</i>	...	Sacred thread ceremony
<i>Up-pramukh</i>	...	Vice-chairman
<i>Urd</i>	...	Black gram
<i>Usar</i>	...	Infertile land
<i>Vaid</i>	...	Practitioner of Ayurvedic system of medicine
<i>Waqf</i>	..	Trust
<i>Zardozi</i>	...	A kind of embroidery work



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-

INDEX

"A"

Aaj : 253
 Abbasi : 54
 Abdul Hamid : 246
 Abdullāh : 153
 Abdul Mohi : 245
 Abishan : 230
 Abodan : 238
 Acharya Vinoba Bhawe : 159
 Achut : 52
 Adarsh Intermediate College, Dildarnager : 217
 Adityasenagupta : 21
 Afghan (s) : 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 54
 Agarwal : 53, 99
 Ahir : 53, 66, 167
 Aibak, Qutubud-din : 23, 117
 Aimabansi : 246
 Ain-i-Akbari : 29, 30, 151, 152
 Ajatashatru : 18, 19
 Akbar : 27, 28, 29, 31, 54, 99, 117, 151, 152, 261, 262, 264
 Akhandha : 258
 Alauddin : 23
 Alawalpur : 238
 Ali Hasan : 245
 Ali Nagi, Sayed : 245
 Ali Quli Khan, Khan Zaman : 28, 264
 Allahabad : 20, 29, 31, 32, 35, 111, 117, 149, 151, 160, 181, 210, 239
 Allahabad Bank : 100, 103
 Allawahpur : 120
 Amahat : 220
 Amanullah, Mir : 23
 Amarupur : 219
 Amauni : 237
 Amghat : 261
 Ammaura : 238
 Amritsar : 40
 Amwara : 231
 Anajahi Bazar : 112
 Andhaw : 238
 Anikulla Khan, Nawab : 31
 Ankushpur : 123, 124
 Ankuspur : 80
 Anothar (fair) : 59
 Anoura : 238
 Ansari : 54

Ansari, Mukhtar Ahmad : 40
 Ansari, Sheikh (s) : 30, 152
 Antyaj : 52
 Arabic : 51, 210, 221
 Arasadpur : 237
 Arthashastra : 221
 Arya Mahasabha : 214
 Arya Samaj : 57, 254
 Arya Samajist (s) : 55, 57
 Asad-ullah : 77
 Asaf-ud-daula : 35, 153
 Asawar : 238
 Ashoka : 19, 257
 Ashvaghosha, King : 19
 Ashvasena : 17
 Asr : 55
 Assam : 112
 Assami : 51
 Aswar : 169
 Athagavan : 216
 Atharva Veda : 16
 Athyaura : 231
 Aunrihar : 5, 14, 15, 110, 123, 124, 255, 260, 261, 263
 Aurangzeb : 31, 54
 Avadh : 32, 34, 35, 38, 153
 Avadhi : 51
 Awathahi (Avathhee) : 94, 120
 Azam : 32
 Azamgarh : 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 29, 32, 34, 37, 38, 110, 111, 117, 118, 119, 122, 123, 125, 252, 255, 260, 263

"B"

Babar : 26
 Bachgoti : 53
 Badhola : 95
 Badhopur (Badhoopur) : 59, 237
 Badri Prasad : 215
 Bagdepur : 92
 Bahadurganj : 6, 45, 49, 92, 94, 95, 103, 109, 167, 169, 185, 193, 215, 231, 238, 255, 262
 Bahariabad : 5, 6, 30, 36, 85, 86, 89, 92, 118, 119, 120, 148, 151, 154, 155, 169, 219, 231, 237, 263
 Bai : 53
 Baisakhi Purnima : 59

- Bakrid : 58
 Balaich : 30, 152
 Balapur : 69, 92, 120, 219
 Ballia : 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 29, 32, 39, 45, 75, 76,
 82, 89, 110, 111, 117, 118, 122, 123,
 125, 147, 156, 171, 173, 222, 227,
 235, 252, 259, 260, 261, 262
 Bamnauli (Bamhnauli) : 89, 216
 Bana : 21
 Banaras : 34, 109, 153
 Banaras State Bank Ltd. : 264
 Bandi Bibi Imam : 245
 Banerji, S. N. : 247
 Banga : 237
 Bangash : 54
 Banki Khod : 231
 Bapu Sadat : 216
 Bara : 5, 7, 38, 45, 91, 94, 218, 238,
 256, 257
 Barabag : 80
 Bara Banki : 90, 111
 Barachaur (Barachawar) : 7, 144, 238
 Baraich : 30, 152
 Bara Kalan : 123
 Baranpur : 95
 Baranwal : 53
 Barapura : 92
 Barawafat : 58
 Barbak : 24, 25
 Barbari : 84
 Barcilly : 90
 Barendra : 238
 Barhadratha : 17
 Barhat : 230
 Barka Tal : 8
 Barkat Ali, Mir : 245
 Barnchawar : 231
 Barsa : 69
 Barsara : 237
 Basaniyan : 168
 Basoopur (Basupur) : 216, 237,
 Batuk Prasad : 99
 Bawanchak : 230
 Bay of Bengal : 10
 Begampur : 261
 Behnas : 54
 Benaras Opium Agency : 90
 Bengal : 21, 24, 28, 29, 31, 86, 109,
 112, 167
 Bengali : 51
 Beni Bahadur : 34
 Beni Ram Pandit : 36
 Besant, Annie : 40
 Besu : 1, 4, 6, 7, 259
 Betawar : 217
 Bhadailo : 237
 Bhadaon : 154
 Bhadaura : 123, 144, 231, 238, 261
 Bhadohi : 84
 Bhagal : 94, 237
 Bhagirathpur : 238
 Bhagvat Purana : 227
 Bhagwat : 55
 Bhainsahi : 6, 7, 8
 Bhaiya Dooj : 57
 Bhala Nonahara : 219
 Bhanamati : 212
 Bhanwarkol : 3, 144, 169
 Bharadhwaj : 53
 Bharashiva : 19, 20
 Bharat Bhakti : 212
 Bharkaura : 237
 Bhars : 167
 Bharsar : 237
 Bhartiya Jan Sangh : 247, 248, 249, 250,
 251, 252
 Bhartiya Kranti Dal : 247, 250, 251, 252
 Bhartiya Lok Dal : 247
 Bhason : 169
 Bhat : 53
 Bhatani : 124
 Bhatti : 54
 Bhimapur : 237, 263
 Bhimutri : 256
 Bhinapur : 120
 Bhisma : 17
 Bhitri : 16, 20, 30, 40, 120, 152, 256, 257,
 263, 265
 Bhitri Taraf Sadar : 256
 Bhowali : 128
 Bhoja (Bhojadeva) : 21, 22
 Bhojpur : 237
 Bhojpuri : 51
 Bhojpuri Samaj : 25
 Bhora : 38
 Bhrigbansi : 53
 Bhunapur : 231
 Bhuinhars : 31, 53, 152, 257, 259
 Bhurkura : 208
 Bhuwalchak : 211
 Bible : 56
 Bihar : 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 17, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26,
 38, 82, 86, 109, 111, 112
 Bihari : 51
 Bihariganj : 120
 Bilthra : 122

- Bimbisara : 18, 19
 Birno (Birnon) : 3, 144, 167, 169, 231, 237
 Birpur : 31, 256, 257
 Bisen : 53
 Bishesharganj (Bisheshwarganj) : 113, 260
 Bishunpur : 238
 Biswin Sadi : 253
 Blitz : 253
 Bombay : 111, 136
 Bonga : 7
 Brahmaddattas : 17
 Brahmanas : 1, 30, 52, 57, 151, 152, 172, 201, 202
 British : 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 41, 42, 43, 44, 79, 86, 99, 109, 110, 115, 117, 129, 153, 166, 183, 187, 202, 203, 221, 242, 248, 254, 260.
 Buddha : 16, 17
 Buddha Purnima : 59
 Buddhism : 14, 52, 56
 Buddhist : 15, 16, 17, 18, 52, 56, 59, 117, 257, 259, 264
 Buerga : 237
 Bundelkhand : 76
 Burkura : 3, 169
 Burma : 37, 50
 Burmese : 51
 Burnon : 118
 Buxar : 34, 117, 119, 256, 258, 262,
 "Q"
 Calcutta : 37, 92, 110, 111
 Career and Courses : 253
 Carlleyle : 14
 Carnae : 34
 Chakmidhni : 95
 Chalukya : 21
 Chamki : 261
 Champiabagh : 92
 Champion : 34
 Chandamama : 253
 Chandauli : 76
 Chandel : 53
 Chandradeva : 22
 Chandra Gupta I : 19
 Chandra Gupta II : 20
 Chandra Gupta Vikramaditya : 20
 Chandwak : 255, 261
 Chapra : 124, 260
 Chasma-i-Rahmat : 203
 Chasma-i-Rahmat School : 261
 Chatura Chanchala : 212
 Chauhan : 53, 54
 Chaunsa (Chausa) : 2, 5, 7, 127
 Chaura : 38
 Chauri Chaura : 41
 Chehtum : 58
 Chedi : 22
 Chen Chu : 1, 15, 260, 263
 Cheru : 257
 Chhotans : 237
 Chihal Satun : 260
 Chima : 58, 69
 China : 79, 109
 Chinese : 1, 20, 259, 260, 263
 Chiriakot : 263
 Chitnath-ghat : 261
 Chitragnpta *charitra* : 212
 Chitragnpta : 57
 Chitrangad : 212
 Chitravali : 211
 Chochakpur : 5, 55, 58, 69, 119, 120, 237, 260
 Choramandala : 22
 Chhoti Sarju : 6
 Christian (s) : 52, 55, 56, 59, 60, 61, 203
 Christianity : 52, 56
 Christmas : 58, 61, 63
 Churihar : 54
 Clive : 35
 Collector-ghat : 261
 Commercial Bank : 100
 Communist (Marxist) : 253
 Communist Party of India : 247, 248, 249, 250, 251
 Congress : 40, 41, 42, 44, 143, 156, 252
 Congress (Organisation) : 251
 Convent Higher Secondary School, Ghazipur : 220
 Co-operative Land Development Bank : 100
 Cornwallis, Lord : 36, 37, 153, 260
 Cumberlege : 39
 Cunningham : 1, 15, 20, 260
 "D"
 Dabhasena : 18
 Dahara (Dahra) : 5, 231
 Damayanti : 258
 Dandi : 41
 Darauli Halt : 123
 Darzi : 54
 Dasahra : 57, 69, 258, 265
 Das, Brijnath : 99
 Datari : 238
 Daudhaundhia : 124
 Daudpur : 218

- Daulatnagar : 263
 D.A.V. Intermediate College, Ghazipur : 214
 Dawait Puja : 57
 Dayal, Rameshwar : 212
 Dayanand : 57
 Dedhagavan : 217
 Deha : 148
 Dehna : 2, 6, 30, 45, 151
 Delhi : 1, 23, 24, 26, 50, 51, 110, 117, 151
 Deochandpur : 230, 237
 Deogaon : 3
 Deoith : 238
 Deokali : 72, 74, 75, 115, 144, 181, 218, 231, 247
 Deoria : 238
 Derhagavan : 230
 Devadoot : 212
 Devagupta : 21
 Devakalee : 92
 Devanagri : 52
 Devapala : 21
Devata : 212
 Dewa : 40
 Dewal : 4, 76, 120, 238
 Dewal Surha : 72
 Dhaka : 2, 156
 Dhamorpur : 237
 Dhanapur : 167
 Dhanush Yagya : 58, 69, 114
 Dharam Chand : 261
 Dharammarpur (Dharmarpur) : 120, 237
 Dharbari : 238
 Dharmapala : 21
 Dharma Shashtra : 61
 Dharanagar : 211
Dharmyug : 253
 Dharani (Dharni) : 8, 119
 Dharwara : 33, 153, 262
 Dhawarjun : 92
 Dhergawn : 238
 Dhobi : 54
 Dhonda Dih : 123, 124
 Dhotari : 215
 Dhunias : 54
 Dhuwarjun : 237
 Dhruvadevi : 20
 Dikhit : 53
 Dildar Khan : 258
 Dildarnagar : 3, 49, 66, 69, 76, 82, 91, 94, 100, 103, 106, 110, 120, 121, 123, 167, 169, 170, 185, 194, 217, 218, 230, 231, 238, 250, 251, 258
 Dinapur : 38, 110, 123
 Dipavali : 57, 59, 63
 District Co-operative Bank Ltd, Ghazipur : 100, 103, 104, 262, 263, 264
 Diwaittha : 7
 Doaba : 2
 Dohari : 122
 Dohrighat : 118
 Dona : 6
 Donwar : 53, 54
 Dostpur : 5
 Douglas : 39
 Dr M.A. Ansari Memorial Society : 218
 Dufferin Hospital : 261
 Dulhapur (Dullahpur or Dulahpur) : 82, 91, 92, 103, 120, 124, 168
 Duncan, Jonathan : 36, 115, 117, 153
 Durga : 55, 57, 95
 Durga Navmi : 57
 "P"
 Easter : 59
 Eastern Electric Company : 184
 Eastern Railway : 123
 East India Company : 34, 35, 109, 153
 Educational Magazine : 253
 Eknaiya : 7
 England : 35
 English : 34, 35, 51, 142, 210
 Europe : 111, 136
 "F"
 Fa-hien : 20, 259
 Faizabad : 90
 Faqir : 54
 Faraukhudli, Masum Khan : 29
 Fardaha : 237
 Farrukh Siyar : 32, 153
 Faruqi : 54
 Fatehpur Bazar : 49
 Fateh Sarai : 7
 Fatehullahpur : 8, 218
 Fazal Ali : 34, 36
 Filmfare : 253
 First World War : 101, 136, 139
 Firuz Shah : 23
 Foxganj : 238
 Francis Fowke : 36
 French : 51
 Fuli : 220
 "G"
 Gadaipur : 5, 120, 121
 Gadariya : 53
 Gandhi Kshetra : 253

- Gadhipura : 1, 259, 264
 Gadhi, Raja : 1, 259, 264
 Gag : 259
 Gahadavala (Gahadvala) : 22, 36
 Gaharwar (s) : 30, 53, 54, 152
 Gahmar : 3, 4, 38, 39, 45, 69, 94, 103, 123, 167, 169, 212, 217, 230, 238, 258, 262
 Gahmar Bara : 119
 Gahmara, Gopal Ram : 212
 Gahmarpur : 91
 Gai : 238
 Gajipur : 1, 259
 Gajor Gath : 1
 Gandas : 22
 Gandraur : 238
 Gandhi : 65
 Gandhi, Mahatma : 41, 43, 44, 206, 208
 Gandhinagar : 215
 Ganesh : 55, 95
 Ganga : 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 14, 15, 21, 28, 29, 30, 34, 39, 55, 57, 75, 76, 77, 86, 87, 109, 110, 112, 118, 123, 180, 256, 257, 258, 259, 262, 263, 264
 Gangapur : 32
 Gangauli : 89, 94, 215, 238
 Gangeyadeva : 22
 Gangi : 4, 5, 7, 8, 152, 256, 257
 Ganespur : 238
 Garha : 2, 262
 Garjapatipura : 1, 15, 117, 263
 Gath : 259
 Gaura Maqsoodpur : 208
 Gautam : 53
 Gautam Bhuinhar : 32
 Gayatri Gyan Bhandar Pustakalaya and Vachanalaya : 211
 German : 51, 203, 214
 Ghaghra : 23, 53, 117, 118
 Ghauspur : 31, 259
 Ghaziabad : 1, 111
 Ghazi Mian : 260
 Ghazipur Ghat : 261
 Ghazipuri : 26
 Ghazipur Pardafash : 253
 Ghuri, Muhammad : 23
 Gita : 55
 Godaur : 219
 Godhni : 6, 7
 Gakhli, G.K. : 247
 Golaghat : 261
 Gomati : 4, 5, 87, 109, 110
 Gonahra : 3
 Gondaw : 231
 Good Friday : 59
 Gopaashtmi : 57
 Gopalpur : 94
 Goraba : 94
 Gorabazar : 85, 169, 211, 220
 Gorakhpur : 6, 22, 110, 111, 117, 118, 119, 122, 125, 180, 208, 260
 Gorakhpuri paisa : 109, 115
 Goril Baba Fair : 58
 Gorkha : 69, 114, 220, 237
 Goshandepur : 220
 Gospur : 94
 Gouda : 21
 Govardhan : 57
 Govindachandra : 22
 Govind Dashmi : 58
 Govind Sadat : 216
 Govind Singh, Guru : 59
 Government City Intermediate College, Ghazipur : 214
 Government Girls Higher Secondary School, Zamania : 220
 Gozandeypur : 237
 Granth : 56, 59, 62
 Greek : 221
 Grehmar : 95
 Gujrat : 27
 Gujrati : 51
 Gunambhodhideva : 21
 Gunasagara : 21
 Gupta (s) : 6, 19, 20, 21, 108, 166, 257, 265
 Gupta Skand (s) : 16, 20, 259
 Gurjara Pratiharas : 21, 22
 Guru Parva : 59
 "H"
 Haideri Bibi : 245
 Haibaya : 16
 Halwai : 53
 Hajjam : 54
 Haji Noor Ali : 245
 Haji Rahmatullah : 245
 Haji Shubrati : 245
 Haji Wilayat Ali : 245
 Hamiddhampur Dhampur : 246
 Hamidullah, Mirza : 43
 Hammidan Bibi, Mst : 245
 Hamzapur : 25
 Hanuman : 55
 Hanumanganj : 89
 Hardy : 43
 Haridaspur : 94

Harijan Industrial Estate, Ghazipur : 95

Haripur : 237

Haripur Bassar : 238

Harsha : 1, 21, 66

Hartmanpur : 215

Hata : 6, 118, 238

Hathia : 111

Hathiran : 230

Hatimpur : 31

Havlock : 39

Hindi : 32, 51, 52, 210, 212, 253

Hindu (s) : 20, 24, 41, 51, 52, 53, 55, 56,
57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 63, 151, 172,
183, 203, 259, 264, 265

Hindu Degree College, Zamania : 208

Hinduism : 52, 55

Hindustan : 25, 27

Hindustani : 51

Hiuen Tsang : 1, 15, 117, 259, 263

Holi : 57

Holika : 58

Huma : 253

Humayun : 7, 26, 27

Hunsh Rajpur : 237

Hurbheypur : 237

Hurmuzpur : 6

Husaini : 54

Husain, Imam : 58, 59

Husain Shah : 24

"I"

Ibrahim : 59

Ichouli : 238

Id-ul-Fitr : 56, 58

Id-uz-Zuha : 56, 58

Ilahi gaz : 115

Inderpur Chhiri : 237

Indeuro : 238

India : 9, 21, 40, 44, 117, 136, 143, 151,
234, 247, 248, 254, 260

Indian National Congress : 39, 42, 247,
248, 249, 250, 251, 252, 253

Indraprastha : 17

Industrial Development Bank of India : 56

Isha : 55

Islam : 52, 55, 58

Ismail : 59

"J"

Jafarpur (Jafferpur) : 58, 237

Jagannath : 1

Jagdishpur : 38

Jaichand : 23

Jain (s) : 16, 17, 51, 52, 56, 59

Jainism : 52, 56

Jakhania : 124, 144, 237, 250, 251

Jakhania Govind : 69

Jalalabad : 6, 7, 33, 69, 119, 167, 231, 237,
260, 262

Jalal-ud-din Nuhani : 26

Jalapur : 58

Jallianwala Bagh : 40

Jamadagni : 15, 16, 55, 201, 264

Jamadagniya : 15, 264

Jame Masjid, Sadwara Ghazipur : 245

Jami Masjid : 260

Jammu and Kashmir : 111

Jumunapari : 84

Jangipur : 81, 120, 215

Janmashtmi : 57

Jashwant Rao Trust : 220

Jatakas : 18

Jaunpur : 1, 3, 6, 14, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29,
30, 32, 33, 35, 79, 109, 110, 114,
115, 124, 147, 150, 151, 152, 153,
160, 222, 255

Jawaharnagar : 218

Jayasi : 211

Jeevapuri : 217

Jehangir : 124, 211

Jersey : 83

Jesus Christ : 56

Jeth Dasahra : 57

Jahanda : 112

Jina (s) : 56, 59

Jukhamia : 231

Julaha (s) : 54, 89

Juran Sahual : 92

"K"

Kabirpur : 120

Kadambini : 253

Kaghzipur : 6, 7

Kahar (s) : 53, 58

Kahla : 22

Kaimur : 7

Kakar : 54

Kalachuri : 21, 22

Kalikapur : 237

Kalinjar : 26

Kalwar : 54

Kalwari Pokhra : 15

Kamadhenu : 264

Kamsa : 17, 18

Kam Swis : 83

Kanaujia : 52, 53

- Kandū : 53
 Kankar : 53
Kankara : 212
 Kunnannai Arazi Mafi : 69
 Kannauj : 20, 21, 22, 23, 26
 Kanpur : 92, 110, 111
 Kantipuri : 19
 Kantit : 19
 Kanuwan : 69
 Kanvas : 19
 Kanwan : 238
 Karahia (Karhia) : †, 76, 238
 Karamhari : 169
 Karamnasa : 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 29, 39, 76, 77, 86
 Karanda : 3, 4, 5; 30, 72, 75, 77, 80, 103, 106, 144, 148, 152, 167, 169, 217, 231, 237, 249
 Karepa : 38
 Karima Bibi, Mst : 245
 Karimpur : 103
 Karimuddinpur : 3, 58, 69, 106, 119, 123, 124, 169, 215, 261
 Karimullah : 261
 Karon : 167
 Kartavirya : 16
 Kartik Purnima : 55, 57, 58, 59
 Kasba Dildarnagar : 169
 Kasha : 17
 Kashi : 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 22
 Kashmir : 21, 22
 Kashya : 17
 Kasimabad : 106
 Kasimuddinpur : 238
 Kastwar : 53
 Kataifa : 238
 Kataria : 238
 Katghara (Kathgara) : 58, 59, 237
 Kathot : 1, 259
 Kauravas : 17
 Kaushambi : 19
 Kaushik : 53
 Kautilya : 221
Kavimala : 212
 Kavindra Ravindra Pustakalaya : 211
 Kayastha (s) : 29, 151
 Kayastha, Kamaleshwar : 211
 Kayastha Kauleshwar Lal : 212
 Kazmi : 54
 Kesarwani : 53
 Khalaspur : 214
 Khan, Alam : 256
 Khan, Azim Ali : 36
 Khan, Bahadur : 25, 28
 Khan, Daud : 28
 Khan, Fazal Ali : 265
 Khan, Hatim : 31, 256
 Khan, Jalal : 25, 26
 Khan, Mirza Hussain : 29
 Khan, Munim : 261
 Khan, Murtza : 32, 153
 Khan, Nasir : 23, 151
 Khan, Pahar : 29, 31, 260
 Khan, Qasim Ali : 28
 Khan, Rustam Ali : 32
 Khan, Saadat : 32, 152
 Khan, Sadr : 256
 Khan, Said : 217
 Khan, Sher : 26, 27
 Khan, Sher Muhammad : 215
 Khan, Tajmud Hussain : 218
 Khan, Tarsum Muhammad : 29
 Khan, Jafar : 23, 28
 Khanpur : 2, 8, 30, 148, 152, 167, 231, 255, 261
 Khanpur Chamki : 261
 Kharabari : 238
 Khardiha : 208, 214, 238
 Khatak : 54
 Khatik : 53
 Khetampur : 237
 Khilafat : 40
 Khirki-ghat : 261
 Khodaipura : 169
 Kinwar : 53, 54, 257
 Kirakat : 3
 Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party : 248
 Kishan Chand : 99
 Kishunpur : 237
 Koeries (Koeris or Kori) : 53, 77, 79
 Kondhia : ■
 Kopaganj : 123
 Korantadih : 4, 76, 118, 167, 260, 261, 262
 Kosala : 17, 18
 Kotwa : 92, 118
 Kotwali : 3, 169
 Krelendrapur (Krelulendrapura) : 15
 Krishna : 17, 57
 Kshatravridha : 17
 Kshatriya (s) : 52, 53
 Kubernaga : 20
 Kumara Gupta : 20, 257
 Kundesar : 231, 238
 Kunjara : 54
 Kurban Saray : 237
 Kurmi (s) : 53, 77

Kuru : 17
Kushanas : 19

“L”

Lachchhipur : 218
Lahore : 28
Lahura (Lahuwar) : 8, 69
Lakshmi : 55, 57, 95
Lal, Aditya : 220
Lal Darwaza : 260
Lal Grantha : 211
Lalitaditya : 21
Lal, R. C. : 219
Lambui (Lambuia) : 7
Lanka : 69
Lathudih : 4, 6, 118, 120
Life : 253
Lodi : 54
Lodi, Bahlul : 24
Lodi, Ibrahim : 25
Lodi, Khan : 28, 29
Lodi, Mohammad Khan : 26, 27
Lodi, Sikander : 24, 25, 26
Lodi, Sultan : 262
Lohri : 58
Lok Sewak : 253
London : 42
Lotan Imli : 169
Lourdes Convent : 206
Lucknow : 27, 35, 51, 111, 122, 171, 209, 210, 228
Lunia (s) : 53, 89

“M”

M. A. B. Educational Association : 214
Machhati : 215
Madanavinoda-nighantu : 22
Madan Benares : 30, 117, 152, 265
Madaneswar : 265
Madanpala : 22
Madara : 212
Madhavi : 212
Madhuri : 253
Madhyamik Shikshak Sangh : 128
Madhya Pradesh : 50
Madras : 136
Magadha (Magdha) : 17, 18, 19, 21, 51
Maghai : 51
Maghrib : 55
Mahabharata : 16, 17
Mahaich : 2, 7, 20, 24, 30, 31, 36, 45, 75, 152, 154
Mahakosala : 11

Mahantha Ramashrya Das Degree College, Bhurkura : 208
Maharaj Gang : 238
Maharashtra : 111
Mahatma Gandhi Sati Satabdi Smarak Degree College, Gaura Maqsoodpur : 208
Mahavira : 17, 59
Mahenpur : 238
Maheshpur : 238
M. A. H. Intermediate College, Ghazipur : 214
Mahipala : 22
Mahmud Syed : 40
Mahpur : 124, 237
Maharareh : 231
Mahror : 53
Mahsaal-ghat : 261
Mahudpur : 7
Mahuji : 7
Mahuwa Bagh : 218
Mahuwari : 238
Main aur Mera Data : 212
Mainpur : 5, 237
Maize : 43
Majhan : 7
Makanpur : 7, 82
Makara : 57
Makar Sankranti : 55, 57, 69, 265
Maksudpur : 95
Malai : 51
Mala Palivar : 219
Malasa : 119, 120, 217
Malaviya, M. M. : 247
Malayalam : 51
Malher : 7
Mali : 53
Malikpura : 208, 209, 216
Malik-us-Sadat, Ghazi : 1
Malik Sarwar, Khwaja Jahan : 23, 24
Mal Kashmiri : 36
Mallahs : 85
Malra : 231
Malwa : 20, 22
Manadar : 7
Manabari : 72
Manav Sewa Sangh Arogya Ashram, Ghazipur : 229
Mandhata, Raja : 1, 259
Mandna, Raja : 264
Mangai : 4, 6, 7, 8, 75, 76
Mangari : 237
Mania urf Saklakhurd : 69
Manihar : 231

- Manihari : 122, 144, 237
Manohar Kahaniya : 253
 Manpur : 231
 Mansa Ram : 32, 153
 Manu : 17
Manu Samhita : 108
 Manu Singh : 154
 Marathi : 51
 Mardah (Mardaha) : 3, 103, 106: 144, 167, 169, 215, 231, 238, 262
 Maridah : 119
 Martinganj : 112, 260
 Marvari (Marvari) : 51, 110
 Masapur : 238
 Masaud Saiyed : 1, 259
 Maswan Dih : 15
 Math Khaki : 261
 Mathura : 17
 Matthews : 38
 Mau : 2, 6, 89, 111, 114, 119, 122, 123, 255, 262, 263
 Maudha : 120, 169, 237
 Maudhia : 237
 Mauli : 238
 Mauni Baba : 55
 Maupur : 237
 Mauriar : 237
 Mauryas : 19, 117, 124, 166
 Mazdoor Parishad : 251
 Mecca : 55
 Medanipur : 120, 121, 230, 238
 Meh aur : 238
 Meston Scholarship Endowment Trust : 244
 Mirzabad : 92, 238
 Mirzapur : 19, 32, 35, 84, 88, 94, 109, 125, 147, 220, 231, 237
 Mishra, Shri Bhagwat : 40
 Mitari : 220
 Mohammad Mohsin : 245
 Mohammad Qasim : 29, 153
 Mohanpura : 215
 Mohd Sharif : 245
 Momin Ansars : 244
 Monhara : 238
 Montessori School : 206
 Mordah : 91
 Muazzam : 32
 Mughal (s) : 26, 27, 28, 29, 31, 88, 124, 151
 Mughal Sarai : 110, 123
 Muhammad : 55, 58
 Muhammad Ajmal, Chaudhri : 265
 Muhammad Ali Khan : 34
 Muhammad-bin-Tughlak : 23, 256
 Muhammad Ghuri : 23
 Muhammad Shah : 25, 32
 Muhammadan : 37, 172
 Muhammadabad : 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 13, 28, 30, 34, 43, 45, 46, 47, 49, 53, 54, 58, 63, 64, 68, 69, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 83, 84, 86, 88, 91, 92, 94, 95, 103, 106, 110, 113, 114, 118, 119, 125, 143, 144, 147, 148, 150, 160, 161, 167, 169, 173, 214, 220, 222, 230, 231, 238, 241, 248, 249, 250, 251, 255, 261, 262
 Muhammadabad Paharbari : 30, 152
 Muhammadabad Paricharbari : 262
 Muji Khail, Mubarak Khan : 25
 Mukharis : 20
Mukta : 253
 Munim Khan, Khan-i-Khanan : 28, 29
 Muria-Hindi : 51
 Murkura : 216
 Murtazai Bibi : 245
 Muslim : 1, 22, 23, 24, 25, 30, 41, 51, 52, 54, 55, 56, 58, 59, 60, 61, 63, 151, 153, 166, 180, 183, 187, 198, 202, 203, 211, 248, 261, 264
 Muslim League : 44
 Muslim Majlis : 252
 Mustabad : 92
 Mustafa, Mian : 25
 Muzaffarpur : 89
- “N”
- Nada Tal : 7
 Nadepur : 237
 Naga (s) : 9, 20, 57
 Nagari Parcharini Sabha Pustakalya : 211
 Nagditpur : 120, 121
 Nag Panchmi : 57, 69
 Nagsar : 4, 76, 123, 220, 230
 Nai : 53
 Naidu, Sarojni : 40
 Naisara : 58
 Nakta-ghat : 261
 Nanad Saiyid Shah : 264
 Nala, Raja : 258
 Namad Saiyid Shah, : 264
 Nanak, Guru : 59
 Nandas : 19
 Nandan : 253
 Nandganj : 3, 8, 43, 59, 69, 82, 91, 103, 106, 114, 115, 119, 123, 124, 167, 169, 216, 229, 237
 Naoli : 38

Naoraji, Dadabhai : 247
 Napura : 92
 Narainpur : 120
 Narang Industries Ltd. Nawabganj
 Gonda : 160
 Narayanpur : ■
 Nardahi : 120
 Nari Pachdeora : 5
 Nari Panch Dewa : 90, 237
 Narmada-sone : 8
 Narwan : 2
 Nasaratpur : 238
 Nat : 65
National Herald : 253
 Nauli (Navali) : 31, 217, 231, 262
 Nauli Saurah : 94
Nav Bharat Times : 253
 Nav-Durga : 55
Navjivan : 253
 Navneet : 253
 Nav Ratri : 57
 Nawab-ki-chahar-diwari : 260
Naye Babu : 212
 Nehru, Jawahar Lal : 40, 66
 Nepal : 8, 22, 50
 Nepali : 52
 Nethersole : 43
 Newado : 238
 Niazi Pathans : 31
Niharika : 253
 Nitya Gopal Rai Charitable Endowment
 Trust : 244
 Nogasar : 238
 Nonhara : 89, 169
 Noni : 5
 Nooruddinpur : 92
 North Eastern Railway : 124
 Nuhani, Darya Khan : 25
 Nuhani, Mubarak Khan : 24
 Nuhani, Mahmud Khan : 26
 Nuhani, Nasir Khan : 25, 26

“O”

Oldam : 14, 259
 Opium Alkaloid Works, Ghazipur : 90
 Orasand : 119
 Oriya : 51, 52

“P”

Pachhadi : 5
 Pachokhar : 220, 238
 Pachotar : 6, 7, 30, 36, 85, 89, 94, 148, 151,
 154, 249

Paharapur : 5
 Paharipur : 89
 Pakka-ghat : 261
 Pakistan : 44, 50, 51
 Pala (s) : 21, 22
 Palis (Pallia) : 69, 169, 238
 Paliwar : 237
 Pandavas : 17
 Pandey, Ram Ugrah : 246
 Panipat : 26, 27
 Pantnagar : 80
 Panwar : 53, 54
 Para : 120, 121
 Parasa (Parsa) : 120, 219, 238
 Paraspur : 89
 Parihar : 53
 Parna : 6, 7
 Parshva : 17
 Parsurama : 16
 Pasis : 85, 167
 Patchpur Atarra : 238
 Pathania : 238
 pathans : 54
 Patkaria : 120, 121
 Patna : 34, 361
 Persian : 52, 74, 210, 264
 Phalharbari : 262
 Pharharbari : 262
 Phephna : 123
 Phooli : 238
Picturepost : 253
 Pirnagar : 221
 Pithapur : 203
 Pitra Visarjan Amavasya : 57
 Praja Socialist Party : 249, 250, 251, 252
 Prakrit : 51
 Prasad, Aditya : 218
 Prasenjit : 18
 Prathamik Shiksha Sangh : 125
 Prithvi Raj : 1
 Punjab : 19, 40, 51, 112
 Punjab National Bank : 100, 103
Puranas : 16
 Pururavas Alia : 16

“Q”

Qarial Poli : 30
 Qasim, Mir : 34
 Qasimabad : 3, 69, 84, 86, 119, 120, 122,
 125, 143, 144, 167, 169, 215, 231, 238,
 250, 261, 262
Qaumi Awaz : 253
 Qazipur Shiraj : 89

Qila Kohna : 260
 Queen of Apostles Society, Lucknow : 220
 Queen of Apostle Society, Varanasi : 206
Quran : 56
 Qureshi : 54
 Qussab : 54

"R"

Raghav Das, Baba : 215
 Raghunath Prasad : 217
 Rai, Brij Mangal : 214
 Rai, Haridwar : 217
 Rai, Maghar : 38
 Rai, Udaya Narain : 214
 Raipur : 237, 238
 Rajapur : 58, 69, 80
 Rajasthan : 111
 Rajdepur (Rajedepur) : 169, 238
 Rajpur : 26
 Rajputana : 27
 Rajput (s) : 29, 30, 34, 53, 151, 152, 153, 166, 258
 Rajput-Muslim : 54
 Raksha Bandhan : 57
 Rama : 55, 57
 Ramadan : 55, 58, 59
 Ramakrishna Mission : 254
 Ramatawakku : 15
Ramayana : 22, 55, 57, 65
 Ram Baran Das : 216
Ram Charit Chintamani : 212
Ram Charitmanas : 57
 Ramgarh : 73, 82
 Ram Lila : 57, 58, 69, 258, 263
 Ramnagar : 35
 Ram Navmi : 55, 57, 58, 69, 256
 Rampur : 230, 237
 Rampur Majha : 220
 Ram Rajya Parishad : 248, 249
Ram Shabdavali : 212
 Ranipur : 238
 Rani Sagar : 258
 Ranza : 85
Rashtra Bharti : 212
 Rashtrakutas : 21
 Rasoolpur (Rasulpur) : 5, 92
 Rasra : 86, 118, 120, 262
 Rastogi : 53
 Rathyatra : 69
 Rauniar : 53
 Ravan : 57
 Rawjwari : 120
 Razaganj : 169, 261

Razia Bibi : 245
Reader's Digest : 253
 Red Dane : 83
 Rehati Mali : 237
 Reonsa Tal : 8
 Reotipur : 8, 45, 69, 91, 94, 103, 119, 120, 121, 144, 169, 203, 217, 231, 238, 262
 Republican Party : 250, 251
 Reserve Bank of India : 102
 Reve'ganj : 123
 Revolutionary Socialist Party : 248, 251
 Rewa : 8
 Rizvi : 54
 Rizvi, Mirak : 29
 Roman Catholic Church : 215
 Roza : 55
 Russia : 111
 Russian : 52
 Rustam Ali, Mir : 153

"S"

Sabzwari : 54
 Sadar : 160, 161, 231
 Sadat : 3, 42, 49, 92, 94, 95, 103, 106, 118, 120, 124, 144, 167, 169, 186, 196, 230, 237, 250, 251, 263
 Sadiabad : 237
 Safdar Jang : 32
 Saghapur : 219
 Sagri : 2
 Sahabaj Koulo : 238
 Sahajahanpur : 89, 111
 Sahibzadi Begam : 245
 Sahjanand, Swami : 40
 Sahkari Kraya Vikraya Samitis : 105
 Sai : 27
 Saidpur : 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 14, 15, 35, 36, 38, 39, 40, 45, 46, 47, 49, 54, 58, 59, 63, 64, 68, 69, 72, 75, 81, 86, 88, 89, 91, 94, 95, 100, 102, 103, 105, 106, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 117, 118, 120, 123, 125, 144, 147, 148, 150, 154, 155, 160, 161, 167, 169, 173, 180, 186, 195, 203, 209, 216, 221, 222, 229, 231, 237, 241, 246, 248, 249, 250, 252, 255, 256, 264
 Saidpur Bhitri (Saiyedpur Bhitri) : 10, 13, 124, 256
 Saidpur Namdi : 30, 264
 Saidraza : 119
 Saiyids : 54
 Sakaldvipi : 52
 Samudra Gupta : 20

- Samvat* : 22
 Samyukta Socialist Party : 250, 252
 Sanskrit : 1, 15, 16, 20, 52, 210, 212, 260
Santachari : 211
Santa Vichara : 211
Santavilasa : 211
Santopdesha : 211
 Sarai Gokul : 230
Saraiya : 212
 Saraswati : 57, 95
Saraswati : 212
 Saray Sarif : 237
Sarita : 253
 Sarita Varnam : 212
 Sarju (Saryu) : 2, 4, 6, 7, 53, 255
 Sarjupari : 53
 Sarnath : 19, 29
Saptahik Hindustan : 253
 Sarvaria : 52, 53
 Sarwa : 5
 Sarwa Seva Sangh : 254
 Satya Narayana : 212
 Saubhadra : 212
 Saurabh : 237
 Second World War : 42, 44, 101, 114, 137
 Serpur : 231
 Sevanand Sadhu : 42
 Sewrai : 169
Shabdavali : 211
 Shab-i-barat : 58
 Shadiabad (Shadiyabad) : 3, 6, 7, 30, 36, 85, 119, 120, 148, 152, 154, 167, 169, 203, 219, 249, 256, 263
 Shahabad : 1, 2, 3, 5, 29
 Shah, Alam : 34
 Shah, Bahadur : 27, 32
 Shahbaz Kuli : 123, 124
 Shah, Islam : 27
 Shahiwal : 83
 Shahjahan : 31
 Shah Jahandar : 32
 Shah Mubarak : 24
 Shahpur : 265
Shama : 253
 Sharqi : 24, 151
 Shastri, Shiv Kumar : 215
 Sheda : 7
 Sheetla : 57
 Sheetla Ashtami : 57
 Sheikh Abdullah, : 33, 255, 262
 Sheikh Abraham Sikri : 29
 Sheikh Hussain : 211
 Sheikh Muhammad : 262
 Sheikhs : 54, 153
 Sheikh Saman : 264
 Sheikh Samman-ka-Mela : 59
 Sheikhpur : 6
 Shco Narayan : 32
 Shco Narayani : 32
 Sher Jang, Nawab : 36
 Sherpur : 45, 69, 92, 94, 95, 169, 219, 238
 Shias : 58, 61
 Shishunaga : 19
 Shitab Rai : 34
 Shivdas Sadat : 219
 Shiv Narayan : 211
 Shivrath Singh Jublee Scholarship Endowment Trust : 244
 Shivatatri : 55, 57
 Shoshit Samaj Dal : 251
 Shrivasti : 18
 Shuja-ud-daula : 34, 35
 Shungas : 19
 Shyam Das, Baba : 216
Siasat Jadid : 253
 Sidant : 238
 Siddiqi Sheikh : 33
 Siddiqui : 54, 153
 Sikarwar : 53, 54, 238
 Sikh : 51, 52, 55, 59, 62
 Sikhari : 237
 Sikhism : 52, 56
 Simon : 41
 Sindhi : 52
 Singh, Alrakh : 154
 Singh, Amar : 39
 Singh, Ausan : 36
 Singh, Balwant : 33, 34, 35, 36, 153
 Singh, Bhagwan : 216
 Singh, Chait : 35, 36
 Singh, Drigbijai : 36
 Singh, Hanuman : 218
 Singh, Kunwar : 38
 Singh, Mahip Narain : 36
 Singh, Ram Karan : 216, 217
 Singh, Ram Swarup : 212
 Singh, Ram Yash : 217
 singhera Tal : 6, 7
 Singhwalpur : 92
 Sirgitha : 237
 Sisupala : 20
 Sinha, Jawahar Lal : 218
 Sita : 55
 Siva : 56, 57, 95
 Siyavan : 216

S. K. V. M. Intermediate College,
Dildarnagar : 217
Smith, Marsh : 43
Socialist Party of India : 247, 248, 249,
251, 252
Sohawal (Sohwal or Sahwal) : 43, 60, 72,
76, 89, 119, 120, 121, 214, 231, 238
Sohotra : 17
Sombansi : 53
Sonbarsa : 262
Sona Shataka : 212
Soniapar : 5
Sota : 6, 7
Sports Week : 253
Srimad Bhagwata : 55
State Bank of India : 95, 100, 103, 264
St Thomas Church : 260
Suapur : 58, 69
Subhakerpur (Subhakspur) : 231, 238
Suchhusvarpur : 95
Suchit Ram : 34
Sudras : 52
Sufi Bahadur, Nawab : 31
Sukhdeha (Sukhdehra) : 144, 238
Suleman Kirani : 28
Sulemanpur : 7
Sulempur : 238
Sultan Hussain : 24
Sultan, Mirza : 31
Sultanpur : 6, 118
Sultan-ul-Sharq : 23
Sunahria : 11
Sunar : 53
Sunarghat : 69
Sungipur : 95
Sunni : 54, 153
Sunwar : 53
Surajbansi : 53
Surendra Medal Endowment Trust : 244
Suri Sher shah : 7, 26, 27, 124, 151, 152
Suri, Farid Khan : 26
Surya : 55
Sushma : 253
Swami Sahjanand Saraswati Mahavida-
laya, Ghazipur : 208
Swami Vivekanand Smarak
Pustakalaya, Ghazipur : 211
Swatantra Bharat : 253
Swatantra Party of India : 250, 251, 252

" T "

Tajpur : 100, 123, 238
Tajpur Dehma : 124

Tajpur Dehung : 230
Tamil : 52
Taraf Hatim : 256
Taraf Sadar : 256
Taraon : 123, 124
Tarighat : 110, 119, 120, 220, 258, 260
Telgu : 52
Tharparkar : 83
The Benares State Bank Ltd. : 100, 103
The Hindustan Times : 253
The Illustrated Weekly of India : 253
The Indian Express : 253
The Pioneer : 253
The Statesman : 253
The Times of India : 253
Thitharia : 153
Tikam Deo : 257
Tilak, B. G. : 247
Tirachari : 94
Tirhut : 22
Tirmizi : 54
Tissura : 80
Tiwari, Marjad : 218
Tons : 2, 6, 73, 74
Triabhukti : 22
Tripuri : 22
Trimohini Fair : 58
Tulsi Manas Sangh Pustakalaya
Dharanagar, : 211
Turtipar : 123

" U "
Uchauri : 216, 237
Udain : 7
Udwanti : 6
Ujian : 122
Ujiraghat : 122
Union Bank of India : 100, 103, 256,
263, 264
United Kingdom : 50
United States of America : 50, 111
Upadhyaya, Ram charit : 212
U. P. Revolutionary Socialist Party :
248
Urdu : 51, 52, 253
Urvashi : 253
Usia : 169
Usman : 211
Usmani : 54
Usufpur : 40
Uttar Panchala : 17
Uttar Pradesh : 18, 21, 51, 147, 159, 171,
184, 209, 210, 220, 226, 245

Uttar Pradesh State Co-operative Land Development Bank, Ltd. : 172

Uttar Pradeshhiya Apradh Nirodhak Samiti : 172

Uttrah : 238

Uzbek : 28

“ V ”

Vaish (s) : 52, 53

Vajira : 18

Vanka : 18

Varanaseya Sanskrit Vishvavidyalaya, Varanasi : 210

Varanasi : 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 14, 20, 22, 23, 24, 27, 28, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 76, 77, 82, 84, 91, 99, 103, 109, 110, 111, 113, 114, 115, 117, 118, 119, 122, 123, 124, 125, 147, 150, 151, 153, 160, 164, 166, 168, 171, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 210, 255, 256, 258, 259, 260

Vasant Panchmi : 57

Vasant Vikas : 212

Vasupur : 95

Vatsas : 19

Vedas : 202

Veerpur : 218

Vichitravirya : 17

Victoria Subscription School : 203

Videha : 17

Vijaya : 57

Vijaya Chandra : 23

Vijaya Dashmi : 57

Vinayaditya : 21

Vindhayan : 8

Virpur : 16

Viryavana : 17

Visheswarganj : 169

Vishnu : 16, 20, 55

“W”

Wardha : 206

Waris Ali : 245

Warren Hastings : 35, 36, 86

Wilayat Ali Saiyed : 245

“Y”

Yamuna : 21

Yashodharman : 20, 21

Yudhapatipura : 1, 15, 117, 263

Yudharmnapura : 1, 15, 117, 263

Yusufpur : 81, 91, 92, 94, 105, 106, 111, 112, 113, 119, 120, 121, 123, 124, 150, 218, 261

Yusufzai : 54

“Z”

Zafarabad : 23

Zaheri : 237

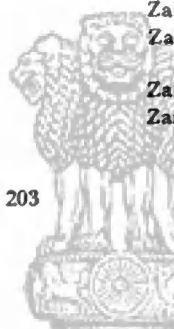
Zahurabad : 2, 6, 7, 30, 36, 148, 151, 153, 154, 249, 251, 255

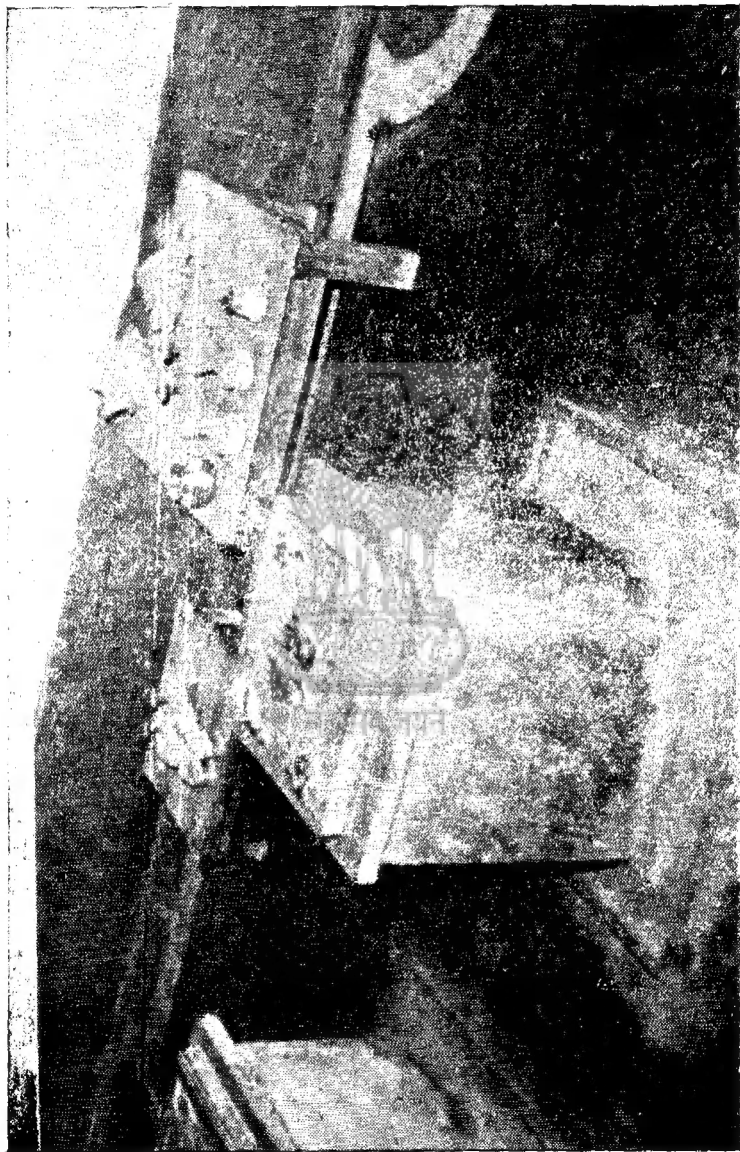
Zahurganj : 14, 15

Zamania : 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 13, 20, 28, 29, 30, 31, 34, 36, 38, 39, 46, 47, 49, 53, 54, 55, 63, 64, 68, 69, 72, 75, 76, 77, 80, 81, 86, 91, 94, 95, 100, 103, 105, 106, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 117, 118, 123, 125, 144, 147, 148, 150, 152, 254, 155, 160, 161, 167, 169, 180, 186, 197, 208, 217, 220, 221, 230, 231, 238, 241, 249, 250, 251, 256, 258, 262, 264, 265

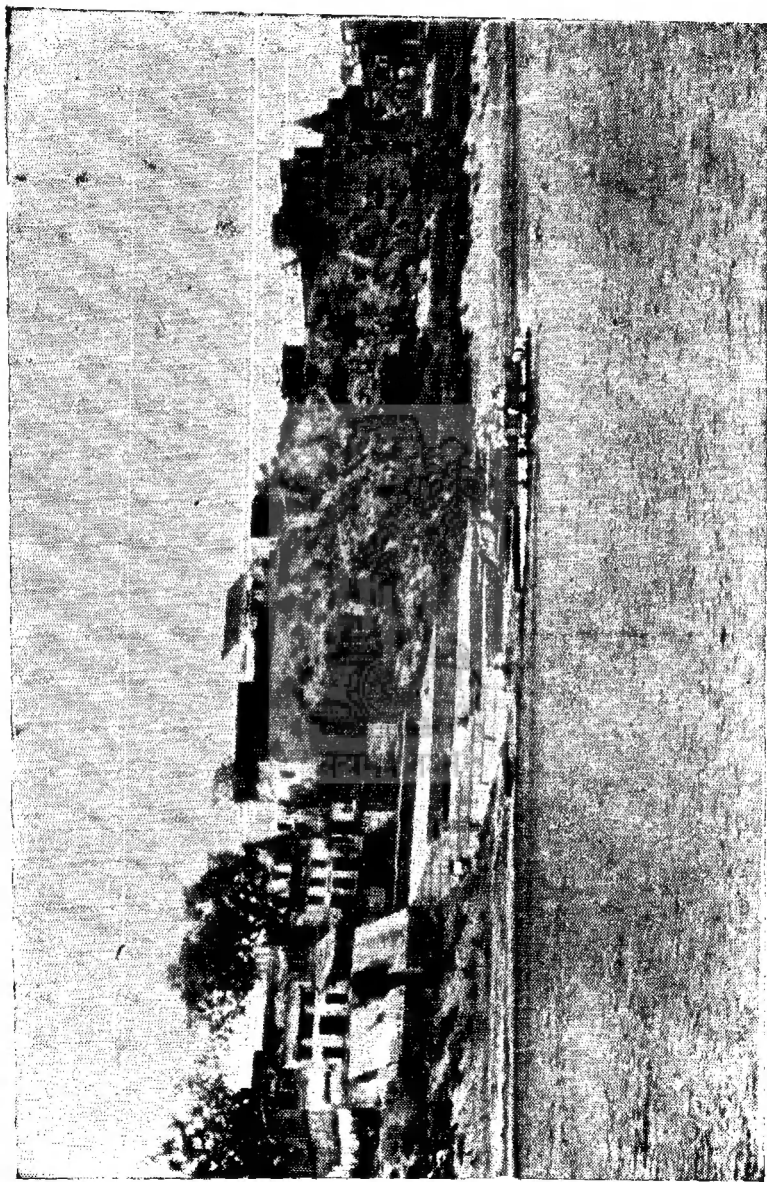
Zangipur : 23, 89, 92, 94, 95, 103, 105, 111, 112, 113

Zuhar : 55





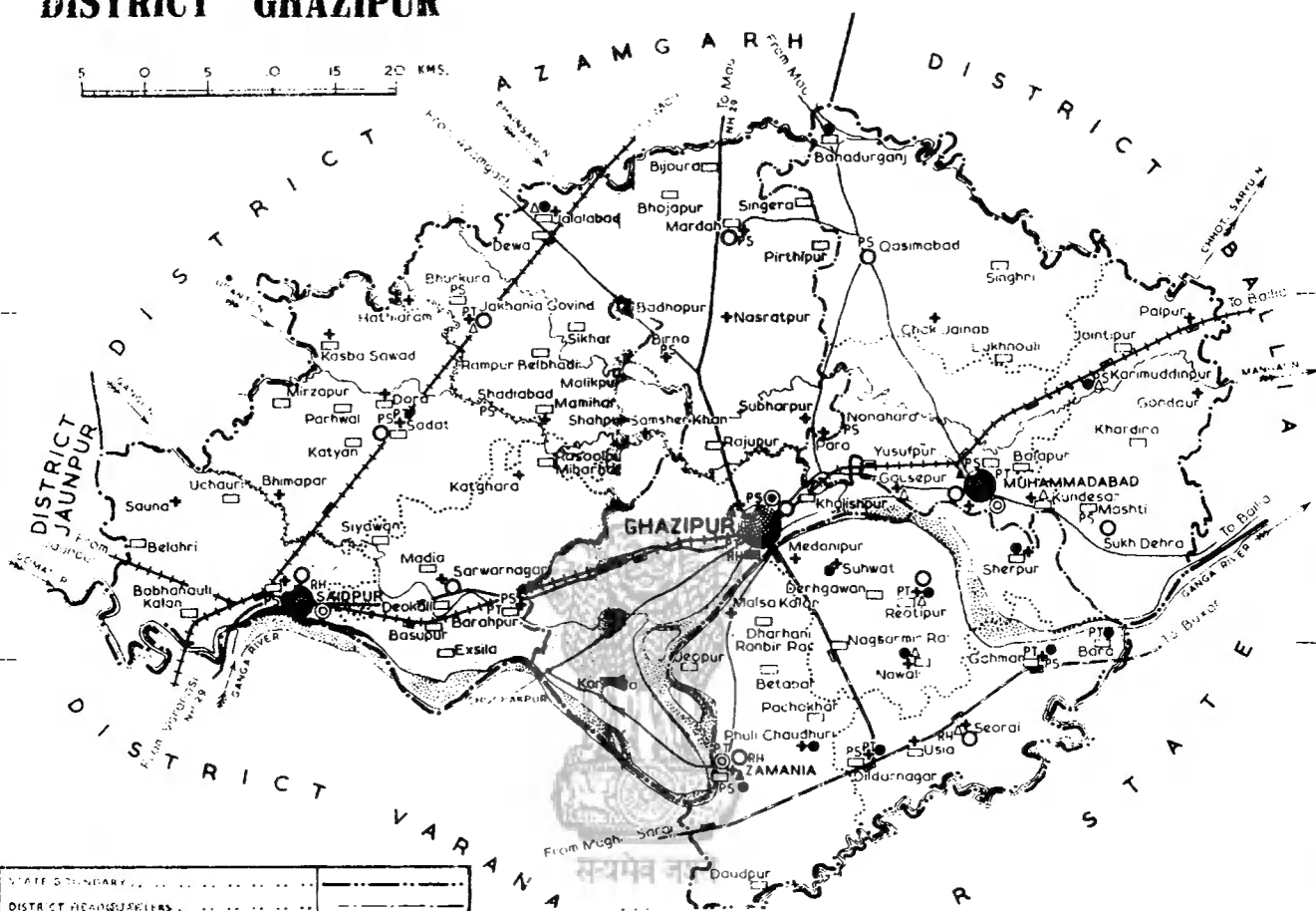
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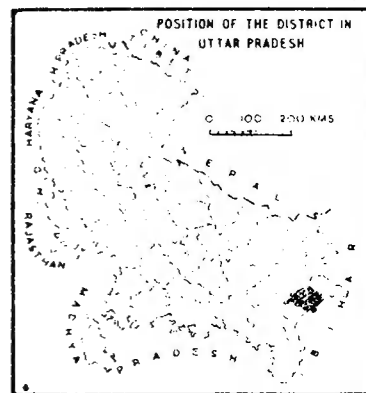
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DISTRICT HEADQUARTERS
TALUK HEADQUARTERS
VILLAGE HEADQUARTERS
TOWN WITH POPULATION SIZE 10,000—19,999; 20,000—49,999
VILLAGE WITH POPULATION 100 OR MORE
NATIONAL HIGHWAY
OTHER IMPORTANT ROAD
RAILWAY LINE WITH STATION, BROAD GAUGE METRE GAUGE
RIVER AND STREAM
POLICE STATION	PS
POST & TELEGRAPH OFFICE	PT
REST HOUSE, TRAVELLERS' BUNGALOW, ETC. ..	RH
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